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The South Lives in History: A Decade of Historical Investigation

BY PROFESSOR WENDELL HOLMES STEPHENSON, LOUISIANA STATE UNIVERSITY

For a generation following the close of the Civil War the history of the Southern states and their contributions in the building of the nation were either ignored or presented in a warped and distorted manner. The historians of the period, influenced by the hysteria of a resort to arms and its aftermath, colored their narratives with an inevitable sectional bias. To be sure, contemporaries of the Old South had lauded its achievements and defended its institutions, but the outcome of the stroke for Southern independence and the dark days of reconstruction created an apathetic attitude among Southerners and resulted in a dearth of information from the South. Southern people wished to be let alone and lost interest, temporarily, in the preservation of their historical records.

The era of the New South, ushered into existence by the coming of industry and the liberal preachers of such men as Henry W. Grady, gifted editor of the *Atlanta Constitution*, and Walter Hines Page, friendly critic of the Old South, has witnessed a revival of interest in the history of the states that formed the Confederacy. Perhaps there is no section of the United States that is eliciting more attention at the present time. This increasing interest in the South's history is manifesting itself in a number of ways. Courses in Southern history are being offered in a large number of colleges and universities.¹ It is a conservative estimate to say that thirty or forty institutions of higher learning now include in their program one or more courses in the history of the South. Moreover, historical scholars are finding Southern history a valuable and virgin field for research. Not infrequently historical associations devote a session to the consideration of special monographs on the South. Periodical literature is paying more attention to Southern history; the April, 1926, issue of the *Review of Reviews*, for example, was given over almost exclusively to articles on the New South.²

About the turn of the century aspiring historical scholars, after receiving undergraduate training in Southern colleges and universities, began to migrate northward to graduate schools, especially to Columbia University, where Professor William Archibald Dunn-

ing had acquired a reputation as an impartial authority on the Reconstruction Period. At the same time it was discovered that a large portion of the history of the Old South was contained in plantation records—diaries, journals, account books, and other documents—hoarded in attics but fast disappearing because of a lack of knowledge of their value as historical evidence. From about 1900 forward scholars and historical societies have been laboring to preserve the economic and social, as well as the political, history of the colonial and ante-bellum periods. Especially during the last decade have books and monographs treating some period or aspect of the history of the South come rapidly from the press. Northern scholars have made their contributions, but some of the most notable works have come from native-born men who received their undergraduate training in Southern colleges, supplemented and liberalized by graduate work in other sections or abroad. The fortunate and promising characteristic of most of the recent studies, whether emanating from Northern or Southern pens, is that they are temperate and impartial, colored only by the interests and individualities of the writers, and not at all by sectional animosity.

The hope expressed by a Louisiana historian, Alcée Fortier, in an address before the American Historical Association at New Orleans in December, 1903, has approached a reality. In discussing "The Teaching of History in the South" he said: "The time will come, perhaps it has come already, when the history of the great Civil War will be taught in the North and in the South from books which will do full justice to Lincoln and to Grant, to Jefferson Davis and to Lee, whatever was the birthplace of the authors of these books."³ Perhaps Fortier was too optimistic about the progress of his own generation, but it is certain that his hopes have materialized in large measure since his passing. The fundamental requisite which he prescribed for the Civil War period now pervades the spirit of research of American scholars in any controversial epoch.

The purpose of this study is to review the research and writing of the past ten years with a view of examining some of the new viewpoints and trends in

Southern history. The writer does not pretend that he has surveyed every important contribution in the field of history and near-history; the output has been so prodigious that it has been necessary to select a few of the studies which are somewhat illustrative of periods and problems.

THE OLD SOUTH

Perhaps the most outstanding contribution from many points of view is Professor Ulrich B. Phillips' *Life and Labor in the Old South* (1929),⁴ the first of a contemplated three-volume history of the South. As suggested by the title, the book is a social and economic history of the colonial and ante-bellum periods. The second volume, we are told in the preface to the first, "will trace the course of public policy to 1861, and a third may bring the consolidated social and political themes onward from that epochal year." From a critical and unprejudiced approach the author presents from authoritative sources a realistic and vivid description of "The Land of Dixie," the colonization of the South Atlantic seaboard, westward movements to Southern frontiers, production of the great Southern staples, and the problems of slave labor and plantation management. Special chapters are devoted to plantations in Virginia, in the Southwest, to the plain people and to the gentry. The discussion of homesteads is supplemented by pictures of mansions and houses, cabins and slave-quarters, plantation scenes and equipment. A chart represents "Prices of Slaves in Four Markets and of Cotton at New York, 1795-1860," and an economic map of the South in 1860 illustrates the distribution of the four Southern staples, cotton, tobacco, rice, and sugar. With skilful hand and delightful style Professor Phillips has presented a fascinating and authoritative picture of society and economy in the Old South.

The writings of Thomas Jefferson Wertebaker and Philip Alexander Bruce are to be set in contrast. Both have concentrated on the Seventeenth century history of Virginia, but they have arrived at different conclusions. In earlier works treating the social, economic, and institutional history of the Old Dominion,⁵ Mr. Bruce emphasizes the importance and dominating influence of the gentry. Virginia, he finds, was in some respects, a replica of the mother country. Her aristocracy was an imported product; the F.F.V.'s had formerly been, or were descended from, F.F.E.'s. He asserts that "it was the gentry who filled the council, the general court, the county courts, the vestries, the pulpits, the clerkships, and every other office of influence."⁶ In his recent two-volume work, *The Virginia Plutarch* (1929),⁷ Mr. Bruce upholds "the aristocratic Virginia tradition" of his earlier studies. The thirty-three Plutarchian characters who constitute the portrait gallery "include two Indians, six colonial governors, eight soldiers, twelve statesmen—including six presidents and a chief justice—a plantation magnate, a rebel, two scientists, and one literary man."⁸ It is the avowed purpose of the author to present "not a series of detached character studies, but rather a continuous narrative of deeds

running from the beginning of the colonial age to our own times" (p. ix). Quite naturally the sketches vary greatly in value, but they are readable and fascinating pen portraits which show the contributions sons of Virginia have made in the development of American life.

On the other hand, Professor Wertebaker, in his *Planters of Colonial Virginia* (1922),⁹ advances the thesis that the size of the average landholding during the first century of Virginia's history was relatively small. After examining copious documents including the rent roll of the colony for 1704-1705, he concludes that "the popular conception of the Virginia plantation life of the seventeenth century is erroneous. Instead of the wealthy planter who surrounded himself with scores of servants and slaves, investigation reveals hundreds of little farmers, many of them trusting entirely to their own exertions for the cultivation of the soil, others having but one or two servants, and a bare handful of well-to-do men, each having from five to ten, or in rare cases twenty or thirty, servants and slaves" (p. 57). In place of the fabled Virginia dominated by an imported English aristocracy, Wertebaker finds in its stead "a colony filled with little farms a few hundred acres in extent, owned and worked by a sturdy class of English farmers" (p. 59). These white yeomen were "the most important factor in the life of the Old Dominion" until the institution of slavery "transformed Virginia from a land of hard-working, independent peasants, to a land of slaves and slave holders" in the eighteenth century (pp. 59, 160).

Other scholars have investigated special topics in the history of the Old Dominion. Three outstanding monographs treat respectively the religious, political, and economic history of the region. Wesley M. Gewehr, in *The Great Awakening in Virginia, 1740-1790* (1930),¹⁰ "endeavors to show the far-reaching effects of the series of evangelical revivals which swept the colony in wave after wave during the thirty or forty years preceding the American Revolution, and then again after the war" (p. vii). A political study, Henry H. Simms's *The Rise of the Whigs in Virginia, 1824-1840* (1929),¹¹ treats the transitional period that followed the disruption of the Federalist party and witnessed a realignment into Whigs and Democrats. *Soil Exhaustion as a Factor in the Agricultural History of Virginia and Maryland, 1606-1860* (1926),¹² by Avery O. Craven, is a study of causes, results, and remedies. The exhaustion of the soil of the tobacco colonies was due to political and economic factors which planters could not control. In the seven decades preceding the Civil War scientific methods yielded tangible recovery. The author finds that no other section of the country and no other epoch of its history witnessed greater agricultural advancement or overcame greater difficulties.

A valuable contribution to the period of the ante-bellum South is Francis Pendleton Gaines's *The Southern Plantation: A Study in the Development and the Accuracy of a Tradition* (1924).¹³ "The purpose of this study," in the words of the author, "is to suggest in general outline the popular conception of the

old plantation, to trace the development of that conception, and to make an analysis of it in comparison with the plantation as it actually existed" (p. vii). The traditional plantation, he finds, developed in literature, in popular song, and on the stage. When he compares the conception with the actual, he concludes that "the tradition omits much plantation truth and at the same time exaggerates freely certain attractive features of the old life" (p. 143). It should also be noted that as "a critical bibliography of plantation literature" the study is a genuine contribution.

Many of the intimate glimpses of Southern life come to us from the pens of Northern and European travelers. Some of them were open-minded and recorded their impressions impartially; others were so prejudiced against Southern institutions that their records have little value as history. One of the keen observers and impartial reporters from the North was Frederick Law Olmsted, whose journey books are an important commentary upon conditions in the South of the 'fifties. His life and travels have been made the subject of special investigation by Broadus Mitchell in his *Frederick Law Olmsted, A Critic of the Old South* (1924).¹⁴ The work is organized into three parts: the first chapter is biographical, the second discusses "The Critic of the Ante-Bellum South," and the third considers "The Economic Effects of Slavery." A map traces the routes traversed by Olmsted.

It was quite customary for travelers and sojourners to comment upon the domestic slave trade, and a few of them made the traffic the subject of special publication. Drawing his information from these sources and from city directories and newspaper advertisements, supplemented by personal interviews with former traders and slaves, Frederic Bancroft has investigated *Slave-Trading in the Old South* (1931).¹⁵ He not only emphasizes "The District of Columbia, 'The Very Seat and Center,'" and "New Orleans, the Mistress of the Trade," but also the markets in Richmond, Charleston, and Savannah, and in Lexington (Kentucky), St. Louis, Memphis, and Natchez. Special chapters are devoted to the negro fever, slave hiring, slave rearing, the separation of families, the status of the trade, and its extent and importance. Contemporaries, Mr. Bancroft declares, distinguished between respectable dealers and "nigger traders." The latter were ostracized from society and were tolerated only as a necessary evil; but honest and prosperous dealers, especially if they invested their profits in plantations, "enjoyed the essentials of respectability." "Honest and fairly humane trading," the author concludes, "especially if on a large scale, seems never to have lowered the standing of a man of good family" (p. 376). The research seems to be thorough except for the Lower Mississippi Valley, and the apparent omission of the use of court records which contain much valuable information on certain phases of slave trading.¹⁶

The history of the Old South has been enriched by the publication of several collections of plantation documents, among them *The Southern Plantation Overseer as Revealed in his Letters* (1925),¹⁷ edited by John Spencer Bassett, and *Florida Plantation Rec-*

ords from the Papers of George Noble Jones (1927),¹⁸ edited by Ulrich B. Phillips and James D. Glunt. The letters included in Dr. Bassett's work were written to James K. Polk by various overseers on his plantation in northwestern Mississippi during the quarter-century preceding the Civil War. Reproduced in the crude composition and distinctive spelling of illiterate and untutored hands, they reveal the character and mental qualities of a most important functionary in the plantation system. The second collection concerns two plantations in Middle Florida, Chemonie, and El Destino, and includes reports of overseers, daily journals, lists of slaves, records of births and deaths, issues of food rations and clothing, crops planted and marketed, and inventories of property. Professor Phillips' introduction emphasizes the importance of plantation documents and analyzes the Florida records included in the volume; and Mr. Glunt records "A Visit to El Destino and Chemonie in August, 1925." The two collections supplement each other in presenting graphic and concrete pictures of plantation routine and management.

Although the ante-bellum South was primarily an agricultural section, advocates of a diversified economic life were not entirely lacking. Broadus Mitchell's *William Gregg, Factory Master of the Old South* (1928),¹⁹ is a study of "the father of the Southern cotton manufacture." "The advocate of industry and the advancement of the average man, he opposed an economic system built upon agriculture, in which a landed aristocracy was dominant" (p. ix). After writing a pamphlet, *Essays on Domestic Industry* (1845), an argument for manufactures in the South, Gregg built and operated a cotton textile mill at Graniteville, South Carolina.

Two other studies relate mainly to South Carolina. *The Southern Frontier* (1928),²⁰ by Verner W. Crane, is defined as "a series of zones, merging into the wilderness. On its hither side it was an area of frontier settlements, at its outer edge a sphere of influence over Indian tribes, in contact and conflict with similar Spanish and French spheres" (p. vii). A well-written and scholarly study by Arthur H. Hirsch, *The Huguenots of Colonial South Carolina* (1928),²¹ explains the European background that resulted in exodus to America, settlement in Carolina, establishment of churches, the nature of political and religious rivalries, and the cultural and economic contributions which Huguenots made to the Palmetto state.

E. Merton Coulter's *College Life in the Old South* (1928),²² is a delightful and entertaining book. Selecting Franklin College (later the University of Georgia) as a type, the author seeks "to isolate and portray the atmosphere and accomplishments of the college in the growth of civilization in the Old South" by "investigating and dissecting one institution" (p. viii). Many of Georgia's illustrious sons—Howell Cobb, Alexander H. Stephens, Robert Toombs, Herschel V. Johnson, Benjamin H. Hill, Henry L. Benning, John A. Campbell, to mention only a few—attended Franklin College, where they acquired that intellectual and social experience that fitted them for leadership. The college of the Old South "was basic and fundamental," the author asserts, "not in the people it reached directly, but

in the influence it exerted through its students" (p. vii). Touches of humor and clever presentation, especially in the chapter on "Justice in the High Court of the Faculty," give the book a very human appeal.

A notable contribution on the political and constitutional theory of the period from 1789 to 1861 is Jesse T. Carpenter's *The South as a Conscious Minority* (1931).²³ It is a study of the Southern minority seeking protection from the Northern majority by successive but overlapping expedients. The author finds that the South resorted in chronological order to the principles of local self-government (1789-1820), the concurrent voice (1820-1850), constitutional guarantees (1850-1860), and independence (1860-1861). A final chapter shows in what measure ante-bellum political theories found expression in the Confederate constitution. As a study of the evolution of a minority political philosophy, the monograph is an excellent analysis, but Professor Carpenter neglects many economic and social factors and ignores the practical operation of political parties, aside from their theoretical and avowed principles. His assertion that the Federalists were "recruited chiefly from the North" and that Republicans were "largely concentrated in the South" is misleading for the formative years of those parties, and his synonymous use of the names, "the Anti-Federalists, or Republicans" (p. 48), is an error which historians have been trying for years to obliterate. Perhaps the most serious criticism of the study is that the author's method excludes any consideration of the cleavage between the East and the West which continued well toward the close of the middle period. Politicians from the Northwest and the Southwest had much in common and were often united in support of principles and policies opposed by the East, whether North or South.

Of the several monographs that have appeared in recent years on the critical period centering about the year 1850, one of the most scholarly and balanced treatments is Richard H. Shryock's *Georgia and the Union in 1850* (1926).²⁴ After examining economic factors and social groups, Professor Shryock traces the political history of the state, briefly from 1824 to 1844, more exhaustively from 1844 to 1853. In the election of November, 1850, for delegates to a convention to determine Georgia's attitude toward sectional issues, Unionists won a notable victory over Southern-Rights men. The convention drew up the Georgia platform, which declared for the Compromise of 1850 as a final concession and stated the conditions under which Georgia would remain in the Union. Admitting that "the principles it embodied can hardly be said to have been peculiar to Georgia in 1850," the author declares that it unified the lower South in some degree by giving "forceful expression to the half-formed convictions of many Southern people" (p. 341). In so far as it was accepted over the South, the platform was a factor in saving the Union in 1850; it was also an ultimatum to the extremists of the North that further encroachments upon Southern rights would result in disunion (p. 342).

The tendency to investigate economic foundations of political currents is illustrated by Robert Royal

Russel's *Economic Aspects of Southern Sectionalism, 1840-1861* (1923),²⁵ and John G. Van Deusen's *Economic Bases of Disunion in South Carolina* (1928).²⁶ Both monographs emphasize contemporary public opinion as an important factor and both show that leaders preferred a disruption of the Union to economic dependence.

THE CIVIL WAR AND RECONSTRUCTION

Two works which appeared about the same time emphasize internal conflict and dissension in the South during the Civil War—Albert B. Moore's *Conscription and Conflict in the Confederacy* (1924),²⁷ and Frank L. Owsley's *State Rights in the Confederacy* (1925).²⁸ After thorough and painstaking research in the *Official Records*, the *Journals of Congress*, and contemporary newspapers, Professor Moore concludes that "Conscription was not only contrary to the spirit of the people but to the genius of the Confederate political system" (p. 354). But in spite of imperfections in the system, mistakes in administration, and dissension aroused, he finds that tangible military advantages often resulted. Relying largely upon the *Official Records*, Professor Owsley rejects the older explanation that superior numbers defeated the Confederacy, and attempts to prove that it "failed from internal, political causes, mainly state rights" (p. vii). Perhaps the author is overzealous in consigning state governors to the rôle of willful obstructionists. In the preface to the second impression, issued in 1931, he says that there is only one revision he would like to make, were he to rewrite the book; he would "emphasize the irritability of President Davis, due to frail health, as a factor in plunging him into quarrels with men like Brown and Vance" (p. x). Conflicts between central and local authorities arose, the author explains, because states insisted upon maintaining armies for local defense, because they desired to control troops in the service of the Confederacy, and because of the passage of acts suspending the writ of habeas corpus, conscripting soldiers, and impressing supplies. Although Professor Owsley is correct in stressing state rights as a cause for the failure of the stroke for Southern independence, the saner view is that it was only one of a combination of causes that conspired to defeat the Confederacy.

More recently Professor Owsley has turned his attention to the diplomatic history of the Confederacy, and has published his study under the title, *King Cotton Diplomacy: Foreign Relations of the Confederate States of America* (1931).²⁹ Using English and French archives as well as American, he has thoroughly investigated the intricate web of the Confederacy's foreign affairs. As a proper background the author explains the development of King Cotton philosophy and shows how all groups in the Confederacy—planters, factors, merchants, newspapers, central and state authorities—favored a cotton embargo to supplement the Northern blockade in winning European aid. The volume is mainly a study of relations with England and France, though two chapters are devoted to the Mexican situation and passing mention is made of Spain, Belgium,

and the Holy See. A concluding chapter, "Why Europe did not Intervene," summarizes the findings of the author. Napoleon III sympathized with the Confederacy and would have joined England in mediation, recognition, or in breaking the blockade. He refused to act alone, however, because he feared war with the United States, and he was too involved in schemes and intrigues elsewhere. Further, the French people sympathized with the North because of traditional friendship with the United States and because the Confederacy was a slaveholding region. Professor Owsley rejects as inadequate older reasons for England's refusal to intervene—the antipathy to slavery, the belief of the common man in the American democratic experiment as a model for the English, or the dependence of England upon American wheat. The real answer to England's attitude is that she was making tremendous war profits out of the American conflict. "Her surplus stock of cotton was sold at a fabulous profit, her linen and woolen industries reaped unexpected harvests of gold, her munitions and steel industries enriched themselves, her shipbuilding was enormously stimulated by the demands of the Confederate government and the blockade business, merchant houses made millions out of blockade-running, and finally, the American merchant marine was driven from the seas and largely transferred to England" (p. 576). Unfortunately, the author has not succeeded in making the book readable, and what is worse, it is much too long.

With a frank and honest pro-Southern point of view, William Morrison Robinson, in *The Confederate Privateers* (1928),³⁰ declares that the Northern government "goaded the South into just reprisal" (p. 13). Although Confederate privateers "achieved individual successes . . . the institution of privateering was obsolete and no amount of industry and valor could save it" (p. 343). The author ranks the performance of the *Jefferson Davis* as "the last truly classic cruise in the history of private-armed sea power, worthy to stand with the notable cruises of our letters of marque of 1776 and 1812" (p. 66). The study reveals intimate glimpses of privateers and privateersmen, of prizes and confiscations, of procedure in a South Carolina admiralty court and the trial of captured "pirates" in New York City, of the first and only submarine privateer, the *Hunley*.

The personal Civil War narrative of *Absalom Grimes, Confederate Mail Runner* (1926),³¹ edited by M. M. Quaife, is one which will hold the attention far into the night. It is the story of a Missouri Confederate who voluntarily organized a "grapevine" mail service between Missouri and Kentucky soldiers in Mississippi and their friends and relatives at home. With the aid of numerous "lady assistants" who collected and distributed the mail, he repeatedly ran the lines between the two armies, subjected himself to great danger, was captured and imprisoned several times, and twice sentenced to death. In escaping from prisons and in assisting others to escape he was a genius. Though some of the stories may have grown with age, on the whole the narrative is undoubtedly a faithful and honest chronicle of events and exploits, and sheds much light

upon an activity which few have known to exist. The memoir was dictated by Captain Grimes to his daughter in 1910-1911.

More than thirty years ago scholars began to investigate the Civil War and Reconstruction in individual states of the South, and at present there are satisfactory accounts for most of them. A few such studies have appeared in the last decade. Professor Thomas S. Staples' *Reconstruction in Arkansas* (1923),³² is a definitive account for that state, though it is regrettable that the author did not pay more attention to economic and social factors. *Arkansas in War and Reconstruction* (1926),³³ by Professor D. Y. Thomas, was designed for the general reader rather than for the historical scholar, but it is nevertheless an accurate and impartial account.

In some respects the most successful study in this field is E. Merton Coulter's *The Civil War and Readjustment in Kentucky* (1926).³⁴ The position occupied by the Blue-Grass State was unique. The danger of invasion, the future of slavery, trade relations with both sections, love and respect for the Union, the compromise tradition, the possible rôle of peacemaker, conspired to render the state opposed to secession but adverse to invasion of the Confederacy. Kentucky therefore declared neutrality and profited as a channel of trade between the Northwest and the Lower Mississippi Valley. By the autumn of 1861 the state abandoned neutrality and declared for the Union, partly because Lincoln had outmaneuvered the Confederacy in preserving a technical respect for her neutral position. But discontent arose as a result of an oppressive military policy, interference with elections, and uncompensated emancipation. The administration became offensive and Kentuckians were alienated. The state became more conservative during the period of readjustment, the Democracy returned to power, and ex-Confederates controlled Kentucky for years.

The recent publication of *War, Politics and Reconstruction, Stormy Days in Louisiana* (1930),³⁵ by Henry Clay Warmoth, was a surprise to many who did not realize that a Reconstruction governor still survived, and his death a few months later again centered attention upon his quadrennium as chief executive of Louisiana, 1868-1872. The story, largely autobiographical, was written as a vindication and must therefore be discounted. Nevertheless, it contains some interesting and valuable side lights upon factional politics. Warmoth was the Republican candidate for governor in 1888 and served as Collector of Customs for the Port of New Orleans during Harrison's administration; but the major portion of the volume is devoted to the Reconstruction Period. The author closes his memoir with the statement that "I was never a 'Louisiana Carpet-bagger,' though I might, in common parlance, be called a 'seallawag'" (p. 270).

THE NEW SOUTH³⁶

The New South, as well as the Old, has invited the attention of historical scholars during the last decade. If it be considered as a state of mind, it may be described as "a spirit of hopefulness, a belief in the

desire to take a fuller part in the life of the nation."³⁷ Of fundamental importance is the economic change which has been in progress since the 'eighties—the diversification of industry, or rather, the introduction of the industrial revolution. For anyone who would comprehend and appreciate new forces of recent decades of Southern development, two volumes of near-history will serve as an introduction. No one who is vitally interested in the Southern renaissance can afford to neglect Edwin Mims's *The Advancing South: Stories of Progress and Reaction* (1926).³⁸ As suggested by the sub-title, the book surveys the conflict between liberal and reactionary forces in the present South. Professor Mims attaches a great deal of importance to "the rise to power and influence of constantly enlarging groups of liberal leaders who are fighting against the conservatism, the sensitiveness to criticism, the lack of freedom that have too long impeded Southern progress" (p. vii). He devotes special chapters to the contributions of Walter Hines Page and the influence of the University of North Carolina, and stresses the struggle for academic freedom, agricultural development, and fairer industrial relations. Disclaiming any intention of considering abstract problems, he deals in concrete fashion with editors, writers, teachers, and religious leaders, who have aided in liberalizing the South.

The other volume of near-history, Howard W. Odum's *An American Epoch: Southern Portraiture in the National Picture* (1930),³⁹ is characterized by a competent reviewer as "the most important work which has come out of the South in many years."⁴⁰ "This story," the author explains in his preface, "spans four generations of southern Americans whose changing cultures have provided the most dramatic episodes in our national history, whose backgrounds and experiences comprehend all the basic elements in the architecture of modern civilization" (p. ix). The story centers about a farmer and a small planter, Uncle John and the Major, who belonged to a generation that bridged the Old South and Civil War and Reconstruction. Their sons and daughters ushered the New South into existence in the closing years of the nineteenth century; their grandchildren contributed to the progress of the first three decades of the twentieth century; to the fourth generation whose achievements will bear fruit about the centennial of the Civil War, "will fall the task of determining the nature and measure of this new American epoch" (p. x). With rare literary quality and historical merit Professor Odum portrays the diverse elements and forces that constitute the many-sided South.

Although industry has become an important factor in the development of the New South, agriculture still retains a preëminent place in Southern economy. It was during the 'eighties and 'nineties that the agricultural masses began to challenge the political control by the aristocracy of planters that had dominated the Old South and who had recovered control during the struggle to regain white supremacy. This revolt of the common man is examined by Francis B. Simkins in *The Tillman Movement in South Carolina* (1926).⁴¹ During the decade of the 'eighties, Benja-

min R. Tillman ("Pitchfork Ben"), a radical agitator of humble beginnings, organized the small farmers of his state behind a program of agricultural reform, which materialized during his two administrations as governor, 1890-1894. Although the author has concentrated upon the transformation in South Carolina, the study has a broader value in that it treats an agrarian movement that in many of its aspects became quite general over the South.

Contemporaneously with this agrarian revolt, industry began to move southward and soon became one of the essential features that made the New South distinctive. *The Story of Durham, City of the New South* (1925),⁴² by Professor William K. Boyd, is more than a study of the development of a North Carolina village of two hundred and fifty in 1870 to a highly industrialized city of forty-two thousand in 1925, for its growth is "typical of that new economic life and those new social forces that have arisen in the South since 1865" (p. viii). Especially significant is the remarkable progress of the tobacco and textile industries at Durham.

The Industrial Revolution in the South (1930),⁴³ by two liberal economists, Broadus and George Sinclair Mitchell, comprises a series of twenty-seven papers written during the past decade and now assembled under topical arrangement. After surveying "The Problem," the essays examine in turn "Recent Labor Unrest," "Child Labor," "Welfare Work," and close with a comparison of "The Old South and the New." The collection is hardly a history of the industrialization of the South, for although various industries have entered the Southern field, cotton manufacturing is emphasized. The writers are very sincere in the belief that "Industry is not only setting past errors right, but it is determining Southern culture for the present and the future. It brings perplexities, but it destroys separatism, and invites and forces national and world consciousness. No one can calculate what the South will someday be like without grasping the tremendous implication of the factory" (p. ix).

The January, 1931, issue of *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science* is a symposium on *The Coming of Industry to the South*,⁴⁴ to which a number of economists, financiers, industrialists, historians, and other experts have contributed. It was "designed to show the scope of industrial development in the South and some of its consequences." Part I is a historical background; Part II considers textile and tobacco manufacturing, the iron and steel industry, coal mining, chemical resources, lumber and forest products, and the power situation; Part III surveys industrial development in four Southern states, Virginia, North Carolina, Alabama, and Tennessee; Part IV examines various aspects of "Labor and Labor Problems in Southern Industry"; and Part V treats "Problems of Economic and Social Adjustment to Industrial Changes."

Although the introduction of industry made the South more self-sufficient, gave her a more balanced economy, and resulted in progressive steps in a number of directions, it has not been an unmitigated bless-

ing. The benefits have been accompanied by all of the problems attending factory labor, strikes, and the development of class consciousness. It is this unfortunate aspect of the New South which has caused some leaders of Southern opinion to doubt the wisdom of the new departure and to desire a return to the agrarian tradition. They contend that the most vital problem that confronts the present South is agrarianism vs. industrialism. The South may be said to be divided into two schools of thought with regard to this problem, and much of the literature of the past ten years has been written in defense of one school or the other. Perhaps the most extreme expression of the agrarian ideal is to be found in a recent book, *I'll Take My Stand: The South and the Agrarian Tradition* (1930), a symposium by twelve Southerners, the so-called Nashville group.⁴⁵ They are very outspoken in their condemnation of the industrialization of the South, and they plead for a return to the Southern tradition of agriculture. "The theory of agrarianism," they say, "is that the culture of the soil is the best and most sensitive of vocations, and that therefore it should have the economic preference and enlist the maximum number of workers." They admit that "an agrarian society is hardly one that has no use at all for industries, for professional vocations, for scholars and artists, and for the life of cities." It is a society, however, "in which agriculture is the leading vocation, whether for wealth, for pleasure, or for prestige—a form of labor that is pursued with intelligence and leisure, and that becomes the model to which the other forms approach as well as they may" (pp. xviii-xix). The attitude of this school is well expressed by John Crowe Ransom, the dean of the "Young Confederates." The Old South, he says, was never "intemperately addicted to work and to gross material prosperity. The South never conceded that the whole duty of man was to increase material production. . . . His business seemed to be rather to envelop both his work and his play with a leisure which permitted the activity of intelligence" (p. 12). This leisure fostered the development of culture, promoted native literature and architecture, and resulted in the creation of a distinctive philosophy of life. In short, agriculture became the Southern way of life as distinguished from the American. So farm life is pictured by another agrarian, Andrew Nelson Lytle, as the ideal state for the present—not the modern farm, but that of a generation ago. There should be no bookkeeping, for bookkeeping makes farming a science rather than an art. The farmer has everything to lose and nothing to gain by a good-roads program. Trucks and tractors, Deacos and radios, motor cars and electric washers are all the enemies of the bucolics, for labor-saving machinery "means overproduction and its twin, price deflation" (pp. 234-245). The agrarians find a solution for the present economic ills of the South in a return to the agrarian tradition—in a back-to-the-farm movement.

But the agrarian ideal has not been permitted to go unchallenged. In the public forum, in reviews in professional periodicals, in books and monographs, other

viewpoints have been advanced. On two occasions Stringfellow Barr, editor of the *Virginia Quarterly Review*, debated the question with Mr. Ransom before Richmond and Chattanooga audiences, and in December, 1930, William S. Knickerbocker, editor of the *Sewanee Review* and professor of English literature at the University of the South, met the same agrarian agitator in debate at New Orleans. In an article in the *Sewanee Review*⁴⁶ Mr. Knickerbocker contends that "a rounded economic life for the South was a major effort made by some of the best-known and most inspiring leaders of the Old South." He disputes the assumption of the agrarians that the Southern "way of life" is agrarian and the American "way of life" industrial. "Industrialism may be an American way of work and agrarianism may be the Southern way of work," he declares, but the distinction between a way of work and a way of life is too great to be confused. In fact, Mr. Knickerbocker finds that the agrarian picture is not complete and raises the question "why real farmers are not as joyful as those our agrarians depict. The agrarian book needs a chapter, realistically and not lyrically presented, on the government one gets from agrarians. . . . There should be a chapter in the agrarian book on the place and burdens of the woman on the Southern farm. There should be a chapter on what a small farmer does when he is deeply in debt and meets successive seasons of too much rainfall, or too little; of too much sunshine or too little; of famine, plague, and drought."

One of the sanest views of the whole problem is advanced by Stringfellow Barr in his salutary as editor of the *Virginia Quarterly Review*. In an article entitled, "Shall Slavery Come South?"⁴⁷ the author agrees that the traditionalist "is right in assuming that industry is already wrecking the social fabric of the South; but he is wrong in not recognizing that it lies in his own power, not to eject industry indeed, but to regulate its application." In the Old South, under the spell of agrarianism, social responsibility was a motivating influence. Why should not the same principle be applied to industry of the New South? "The industrialist, to get the good will of the community in which he proposes to operate, must be forced to accept those checks on irresponsible exploitation that older industrial communities, like Great Britain and the North, have already worked out in tears and bloodshed." The problem, therefore, is one of "restrictive legislation to supplement human decency." Factory masters and corporations must be made to realize that they have a large measure of social responsibility. It is a safe conclusion that the New South presents a more balanced social and economic structure than the Old, if the new departure may be made subservient to society rather than controlling.

BIOGRAPHY

With few exceptions Southern biography is still virgin soil. A limited number of standard biographical works have appeared and a few are awaiting publication, but the careers of many prominent Southerners are yet to be investigated.⁴⁸ The present rage for bi-

ography and prospective profits from best sellers have attracted the journalistic school of writers, and although their output is of some value, it is regrettable that more trained historians have not turned their attention to this field.

One of the most substantial contributions is *The Public Life of Thomas Cooper* (1926),⁴⁹ by Dumas Malone. The author disclaims any purpose of writing a personal biography. It is a study of a temperamental, combative, aggressive agitator and controversialist whose versatility qualified him as a pamphleteer and teacher of countless subjects. Although his formative years were spent in England, followed by a quarter-century in Pennsylvania, he completely identified himself with the interests of South Carolina during the last two decades of his career. As professor of political economy at South Carolina College and later as its president, he exerted tremendous influence upon his generation. As a champion of state rights and nullification, and as an advocate of free trade and freedom of speech, he became the storm center of innumerable controversies.

Two excellent studies of pioneers of the Southwest have appeared in recent years—*The Life of Stephen F. Austin, Founder of Texas, 1793-1836* (1925),⁵⁰ by Eugene C. Barker, and *The Raven, A Biography of Sam Houston* (1929),⁵¹ by Marquis James. Professor Barker's work is a thorough and scholarly biography of the builder of a commonwealth. To Stephen F. Austin fell the task of establishing an American colony in Texas, a scheme projected by his father, Moses Austin, shortly before his death in 1821. Diplomatic, tactful, patient, and statesmanlike, he succeeded where his more impetuous and litigious father might have failed. Self-effacing and modest, loyal to Mexico but devoted to the American colonists, his contributions as a state-maker were fundamental. He acquiesced reluctantly in the movement for Texan independence only to be defeated for the presidency of the new republic by Sam Houston. He accepted the secretaryship of state, but survived only a few weeks. *The Raven* affords highly entertaining reading, and in spite of romantic touches and a few historical inaccuracies, it stands as a satisfactory account. From military beginnings under Andrew Jackson, Sam Houston reached Congress and the governorship of Tennessee in his early years, only to be involved in a marriage controversy which sent him into voluntary exile among the Cherokee Indians in the Arkansas Valley. Destiny led him to Texas, where he became the hero of San Jacinto and twice president of the Lone Star Republic. As United States senator and governor of Texas he was a stalwart defender of the Union and strove ardently to prevent his state from seceding. Taken together the careers of Austin and Houston constitute a rather complete history of Texas from the beginning to the Civil War.

Early in the decade under review, Bernard C. Steiner published his *Life of Roger Brooke Taney, Chief Justice of the United States Supreme Court* (1922).⁵² A perusal of the volume reveals a rather critical biography of the able successor of John Mar-

shall. Though the narrative is far too detailed, especially in the presentation of cases with which Taney was concerned, some chapters are clearcut and succinct. Too often Taney's name is remembered only in connection with the Dred Scott Decision; Mr. Steiner considers his long and useful career as a jurist with that controversial decision as one of the significant landmarks. The author concludes that the Chief Justice was "a clear thinking, able, high-minded, hot-tempered, narrow, pertinacious, brave, prejudiced man—a devout Christian and a faithful member of the Roman Catholic Church." Emphasizing "the composite and federal character of the United States," Taney was attached to the Union but never advanced "to the position of a Nationalist" (pp. 541-542).

The biography of *John Slidell* (1925),⁵³ by Louis Martin Sears, treats exhaustively his Mexican missions and his contributions to Buchanan's success in reaching the presidency. Professor Sears declares that Slidell "possessed many elements of greatness" and includes him "in the calendar of distinguished Americans" (pp. 238-239). Failing to use the numerous files of Louisiana newspapers for the 'forties and 'fifties, the story leaves untold his career as a politician in Louisiana, where he was regarded as crafty and shrewd, cunning and industrious, with perhaps more ingenuity than ability.

Of "Lives" of Jefferson Davis there is a superabundance, but unfortunately many of the recent biographical efforts are unsatisfactory from an historical point of view. Morris Schaff's *Jefferson Davis: His Life and Personality* (1922),⁵⁴ is a study in chivalry and hero worship with a background in good intentions, written by a Union soldier. The literary qualities and dramatic style of H. J. Eckenrode's *Jefferson Davis, President of the South* (1923),⁵⁵ make it intensely interesting as a narrative. Further, Mr. Eckenrode has gone more fully into the Civil War period of Davis's career than most writers. But he has evolved a theory of tropic nordicism by which he attempts to explain not only the perplexing character of the Confederate president, but also the nature and outcome of the sectional controversy culminating in the Civil War. It is therefore a formulistic biography, and since many facts and factors will not fit into the formula, in such measure does it fail to qualify as history.

Jefferson Davis: His Rise and Fall (1929),⁵⁶ is "A Biographical Narrative" by Allen Tate, a poet turned historian. There is little that is new in the book except, as the author suggests, "a viewpoint not previously applied to Jefferson Davis" (p. 303). Less than eighty pages out of some three hundred are devoted to the period before secession, and a large portion of these are intended for historical background. Robert W. Winston's *High Stakes and Hair Trigger: The Life of Jefferson Davis* (1930),⁵⁷ is a lively and thrilling tale with little new material and countless inaccuracies in the use of sources. Elizabeth Brown Cutting's *Jefferson Davis, Political Soldier* (1930),⁵⁸ is a well-written biography with research in English and French archives. More space is devoted to the foreign affairs of the Confederacy than is customary

in biographies of Davis. The author asserts that Davis "was a soldier by taste and a political leader by accident" (p. 320).

Of much real value to students of Southern history is the publication of *Jefferson Davis, Constitutional-ist: His Letters, Papers, and Speeches* (1923),⁵⁹ collected and edited by Dunbar Rolland. This ten-volume collection of source material is a most important contribution to the history of the South. Here is the unadulterated story of Jefferson Davis and the important events with which he was connected, without the frills and settings and exciting interpretations of debunking biographers. "The letters and papers, reasonably exhaustive," says an able reviewer,⁶⁰ "utterly destroy the myth that Davis was a punctilious, exacting, and quarrelsome martinet."

Two studies of Georgia statesmen have appeared recently, *The Political Policies of Howell Cobb* (1929),⁶¹ by Zachary Taylor Johnson, and *Benjamin H. Hill: Secession and Reconstruction* (1928),⁶² by Haywood J. Pearce, Jr. Professor Johnson's dissertation begins abruptly with Cobb's election to Congress in 1842 and closes with the fall of the Confederacy. The study emphasizes his attitude toward the annexation of Texas and the Mexican War, the speakership contest of 1849, the Compromise of 1850, the gubernatorial campaign of 1851, the treasury portfolio in Buchanan's cabinet, and the secession movement of 1860. Professor Pearce's work begins with Hill's political genesis in 1852 and closes with the end of the Reconstruction Period, though the Georgian had before him five years in the United States Senate. It is the story of a staunch Unionist in the 'fifties who gave his undivided support to the Davis administration. Unfortunately, neither writer rounded out his study into a complete biography before publication.

Allen Tate's *Stonewall Jackson, The Good Soldier* (1928),⁶³ is a eulogistic narrative written in a choppy style. The author has relied heavily upon Colonel G. F. R. Henderson's two-volume study of *Stonewall Jackson and the American Civil War* (1898) "in his judgment of military events" (p. 321). Apparently the biography was compiled mainly from secondary sources. Far more substantial is *Robert E. Lee, The Soldier* (1925),⁶⁴ by Major-General Sir Frederick Maurice. Qualified by experience as an able military critic, the author is unusually sound and fair in his judgments of strategy and tactics. Although the book was written as "an appreciation of Lee's generalship" (p. v), it is a critical estimate of the Confederacy's greatest military genius. Clear and concise, inspiring and vigorous, the study analyzes the Virginia campaigns without the technical details which would make the book tiresome and difficult. The final chapter evaluates the opinions of contemporary critics and compares the Virginian with Wellington. Of Lee's ability Sir Frederick says:

"If the campaign of 1862, from Richmond to the Potomac, is a model of what an army inferior in numbers may achieve in offence, the campaign from the wilderness to Cold Harbour is equally a model of defensive strategy and tactics. Some commanders have

excelled in the one method, some in the other; few in both, and amongst those few must be remembered Robert E. Lee" (p. 244).

Perhaps the career of no American statesman has undergone more reconstruction in recent years than has Andrew Johnson's. Beginning with the pioneering efforts of W. A. Dunning a generation ago, his place in history has been re-evaluated with a consequent rehabilitation of his character and ability. His radical contemporaries pictured him as a drunken, illiterate, contemptible, insolent, quarrelsome egotist, but modern writers have proved that contemporary judgments were unsound and prejudiced. Two biographies of Johnson have appeared within the last quadrennium, *Andrew Johnson, Plebeian and Patriot* (1928),⁶⁵ by Robert W. Winston, and *Andrew Johnson, A Study in Courage* (1929),⁶⁶ by Lloyd Paul Stryker. Winston's book is a readable and well-rounded biography, based upon copious research. The method is vigorous and sympathetic, but unfortunately there are some instances in which the author holds a brief for his client. Stryker's biography is written in a passionate and partisan tone, the pendulum swings much too far in the opposite direction, and Johnson's Radical contemporaries are clothed in blacker garb than was actually the case.

Other studies present periods of Johnson's career from more critical and detached viewpoints. George Fort Milton's *The Age of Hate: Andrew Johnson and the Radicals* (1930),⁶⁷ is fair in attitude and accurate in substance. The author traces Johnson's early career briefly and devotes a chapter to "The Tennessee Epilogue," but it is essentially a study of the period from 1864 to 1869. The Reconstruction president stands forth as an honest, sincere, and constitutional executive, whose sound policies were defeated by a scheming coterie of Radicals, though the author is not unfair to Johnson's worst enemies. Howard K. Beale's *The Critical Year: A Study of Andrew Johnson and Reconstruction* (1930),⁶⁸ considers the period between Johnson's accession to the presidency and the congressional election of 1866 which resulted in a victory for the Radicals. It is a temperate and balanced account of an intricate transitional period in political history, and adequately considers the economic and social foundations of political realignments.

The Life of Thomas E. Watson (1926),⁶⁹ by William W. Brewton, is the story of a flamboyantly gifted political agitator and reformer. A term in the Georgia legislature was followed a few years later by election to Congress in 1890. Chosen by the Democratic party, he deserted to the Populists and failed to be re-elected in 1892 or 1894. He was nominated by the Populists for vice-president in 1896, and by the People's party for president in 1904 and 1908. In 1920 he was elected to the United States Senate on an anti-League platform, but survived only two years. An accomplished lawyer, yellow journalist, novelist, poet, historian, and biographer, his career had many sides. Unfortunately, the economic situation which called forth such leadership as Watson's does not appear in his biography. Mr. Brewton might have promoted organization in his

book by reducing the number of chapters and by adopting a more topical arrangement.

THE SOUTH LIVES IN HISTORY

In December, 1889, Professor William P. Trent, of the University of the South, presented a paper before the sixth annual meeting of the American Historical Association, "Notes on the Outlook for Historical Studies in the South,"⁷⁰ an investigation of the status of Southern historical societies, collections of material, and research projects under way. He discovered that historical societies existed in all but three or four of the Southern states, but many of them needed "encouragement and financial support." There were few historical collections of any significance. Current work upon "monographs and treatises" was discussed in two paragraphs. In short, he found "no overwhelming zeal for historical studies in the South." He closed his article with this significant paragraph:

Is it not apparent then that we should all do what we can to speed on the good work of collecting materials and otherwise preparing the way for the future historian of the South? For my own part, I care not from what state or section he comes, provided he come quickly. I know more than one scholar, born without the Southern pale, into whose hands I would trust our history without a fear; and I cannot help smiling to think how thoroughly the tables would be turned if it were a Northern historian who should first give to the world a true and complete history of the Southern people.

In the generation of time that has elapsed since Professor Trent made his survey, the real South in its true setting has begun to live in history. The chronicles of the Southern people are by no means complete, but a substantial beginning has been made.

⁷⁰ See an article by W. H. Stephenson, "History of the South in Colleges and Universities, 1925-1926," in *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, XVII, 319-322, November, 1926.

⁷¹ A bibliography of articles appearing in the *American Mercury*, *Atlantic Monthly*, *Century*, *Harpers*, *North American Review*, *Review of Reviews*, *Scribner's*, and *World's Work*, 1900-1930, is available in Howard W. Odum, *An American Epoch: Southern Portraiture in the National Picture*, New York, 1930, 346-353. There is also a bibliography of books and brochures on Southern history and the negro for the same period, 353-363.

⁷² Alcée Fortier, "The Teaching of History in the South," in *The Iowa Journal of History and Politics*, III, 94, 1905.

⁷³ Little, Brown, and Company, Boston, pp. 375, \$4.00.

⁷⁴ *Economic History of Virginia in the Seventeenth Century*, 2 vols., New York, 1895; *Social Life in Virginia in the Seventeenth Century*, Richmond, 1907; *Institutional History of Virginia in the Seventeenth Century*, 2 vols., New York, 1910.

⁷⁵ See his review of Wertenbaker, *Planters of Colonial Virginia*, in *American Historical Review*, XXVIII, 552-553, April, 1923.

⁷⁶ University of North Carolina Press, Chapel Hill, pp. 327, 353, \$9.00.

⁷⁷ Review by Dumas Malone in *American Historical Review*, XXXV, 885-887, July, 1930.

⁷⁸ Princeton University Press, Princeton, pp. 260, \$2.50.

⁷⁹ Duke University Press, Durham, pp. 292, \$4.00.

⁸⁰ William Byrd Press, Richmond, pp. 204, \$2.25.

⁸¹ *University of Illinois Studies in the Social Sciences*, XIII, No. 1. University of Illinois, Urbana, pp. 179, \$1.50.

⁸² Columbia University Press, New York, pp. 243, \$2.50.

⁸³ Johns Hopkins University Studies in Historical and

Political Science, ser. XLII, No. 2. Johns Hopkins Press, Baltimore, pp. 158, \$1.50.

⁸⁴ J. H. Furst and Company, Baltimore, pp. 415, \$4.00.

⁸⁵ Adapted from the writer's review in the *Southwestern Social Science Quarterly*, XII, 88.

⁸⁶ Smith College, *Fiftieth Anniversary Publications*, Northampton, pp. 280, \$3.65.

⁸⁷ Missouri Historical Society Publications, St. Louis, pp. 596, \$7.50.

⁸⁸ University of North Carolina Press, Chapel Hill, pp. 331, \$3.00.

⁸⁹ Duke University Press, Durham, pp. 391, \$4.50.

⁹⁰ Duke University Press, Durham, pp. 338, \$5.00.

⁹¹ Macmillan Company, New York, pp. 381, \$3.00.

⁹² New York University Press, New York, pp. 315, \$4.50.

⁹³ Duke University Press, Durham, pp. 406, \$4.00.

⁹⁴ *University of Illinois Studies in the Social Sciences*, XII, Nos. 1, 2. University of Illinois, Urbana, pp. 325, \$2.00.

⁹⁵ *Columbia University Studies in History, Economics, and Public Law*, No. 305. Columbia University Press, New York, pp. 360, \$6.00.

⁹⁶ Macmillan Company, New York, pp. 367, \$3.00.

⁹⁷ University of Chicago Press, Chicago, second impression, 1931, pp. 290, \$3.00.

⁹⁸ University of Chicago Press, Chicago, pp. 617, \$5.00.

⁹⁹ Yale University Press, New Haven, pp. 372, \$4.00.

¹⁰⁰ Yale University Press, New Haven, pp. 216, \$3.00.

¹⁰¹ *Columbia University Studies in History, Economics, and Public Law*, CIX. Longmans, Green, and Company, New York, pp. 450, \$4.50.

¹⁰² United Daughters of the Confederacy, Little Rock, pp. 446, \$1.50.

¹⁰³ University of North Carolina Press, Chapel Hill, pp. 468, \$3.60.

¹⁰⁴ Macmillan Company, New York, pp. 285, \$3.50.

¹⁰⁵ Ten recent books on the New South are surveyed in an article by J. Fred Rippy, "The South Examines Itself," in the *South Atlantic Quarterly*, XXX, 19-26, January, 1931.

¹⁰⁶ Holland, Thompson, *The New South (Chronicles of America*, ed. Allen Johnson, XLII, 1921), 8.

¹⁰⁷ Doubleday, Page & Company, Garden City, pp. 319, \$3.00.

¹⁰⁸ Henry Holt and Company, New York, pp. 379, \$3.50.

¹⁰⁹ Review by Holland Thompson in *Mississippi Valley Historical Review*, XVIII, 117-118, June, 1931.

¹¹⁰ Duke University Press, Durham, pp. 274, \$2.50.

¹¹¹ Duke University Press, Durham, pp. 345, \$3.00.

¹¹² John Hopkins Press, Baltimore, pp. 298, \$2.75.

¹¹³ Philadelphia, pp. 296, \$2.00.

¹¹⁴ Harper and Brothers, New York, pp. 359, \$3.00. The contributors are John Crowe Ransom, Donald Davidson, Frank Lawrence Owsley, John Gould Fletcher, Lyle H. Lanier, Allen Tate, Herman Clarence Nixon, Andrew Nelson Lytle, Robert Penn Warren, John Donald Wade, Henry Blue Kline, and Stark Young.

¹¹⁵ "Mr. Ransom and the Old South," in *The Sewanee Review*, XXXIX, 222-239, April-June, 1931.

¹¹⁶ *Virginia Quarterly Review*, VI, 481-494, October, 1930.

¹¹⁷ In any survey of Southern biography, limitation is a perplexing problem. Biographies of George Washington, Thomas Jefferson, Andrew Jackson, etc., have appeared in recent years, but their identification with so many national problems and events makes it easier for the writer to exclude consideration of them in this survey.

¹¹⁸ Yale University Press, New Haven, pp. 432, \$4.00. This study was awarded the John Addison Porter Prize, Yale University, 1923.

¹¹⁹ Cokesbury Press, Dallas, pp. 551, \$5.00.

¹²⁰ Bobbs-Merrill Company, Indianapolis, pp. 489, \$5.00. This biography was awarded the Pulitzer Prize for 1929.

¹²¹ Williams and Wilkins Company, Baltimore, pp. 553, \$6.00.

¹²² Duke University Press, Durham, pp. 252, \$2.50.

¹²³ John W. Luce and Company, Boston, pp. 277, \$3.00.

¹²⁴ Macmillan Company, New York, pp. 371, \$2.50.

¹²⁵ Minton, Balch & Company, New York, pp. 311, \$3.50.

⁸⁷ Henry Holt and Company, New York, pp. 306, \$3.50.
⁸⁸ Dodd, Mead and Company, New York, pp. 361, \$5.00.
⁸⁹ Mississippi Department of Archives and History, Jackson, 10 vols., \$75.00.
⁹⁰ William E. Dodd in *American Historical Review*, XXIX, 352-356, January, 1924.
⁹¹ George Peabody College for Teachers, *Contributions to Education*, Nashville, pp. 187.
⁹² University of Chicago Press, Chicago, pp. 330, \$3.00.
⁹³ Minton, Balch & Company, New York, pp. 322, \$3.50.

⁹⁴ Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, pp. 313, \$4.00.
⁹⁵ Henry Holt and Company, New York, pp. 549, \$5.00.
⁹⁶ Macmillan Company, New York, pp. 881, \$6.00.
⁹⁷ Coward-McCann, New York, pp. 787, \$5.00.
⁹⁸ Harcourt, Brace and Company, New York, pp. 454, \$3.75.
⁹⁹ Published by the Author, Atlanta, pp. 408, \$3.50.
¹⁰⁰ American Historical Association *Papers*, IV, 383-391, October, 1890.

Critic Teaching in the History Department of Hunter College High School

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As the demand for trained teachers in the secondary schools increases, there is greater need for improved technique in the conduct of critic and practice teaching. The following paper is the outcome of three conferences on critic teachings held by the History Department of Hunter College High School, New York City, during the spring term of the present year.

Hunter College High School, it should be explained, receives pupils from Hunter College who are pursuing courses in the teaching of High School subjects. In the History Department fifteen periods of practice teaching are required, the members of the High School staff acting as critic teachers.

Three important aspects of critic teaching were selected for discussion, namely, "How to determine the individual difficulty of the pupil-teacher," "How to aid the pupil-teacher to solve her individual problem," and "How to widen the horizon of the pupil-teacher."

Miss Frances Johnston of the History Department, proceeding on the assumption that the most effectual criticism is that made by the teacher on her own work, prepared the score sheet which is printed below for the use of the pupil-teacher. It presents a somewhat detailed analysis of the elements of the teaching process, centering about three main topics, personality, general intelligence, and technique of teaching. In spite of the fact that score cards and score sheets now employed in training institutions tend toward a briefer rather than a more extended analysis, it was felt that self-criticism would be aided by specific treatment of points involved in teaching. Moreover, a detailed set of standards placed before the novice, acts as a stimulus to endeavor and provides definite objectives in attaining which progress can actually be measured, where a general objective is difficult both of comprehension and practical achievement.

It will be observed that the whole matter of diagnosing difficulties has been placed upon a positive rather than a negative basis. The fault to be corrected is thought of, not as an evil to be eradicated, but as the failure to approach an ideal. This is in accordance with the opinion expressed at all three conferences

that criticism should be constructive in order to be most helpful.

No originality is claimed for this score sheet. Nor is it the result of any scientific or standardized process, as these terms are now applied to testing. It represents merely the collective opinion of a small group of critic teachers and is submitted here in the hope that it may be of assistance to other critic teachers or to novices.

The second conference on "How to aid the pupil-teacher to solve her individual problem" was intended to furnish helpful suggestions for the pupil-teacher who recognizes her faults and is eager to improve on her work. In a sense it was built on the first conference, continuing the problem of critic teaching where the first subject was closed. No attempt was made to cover the ground in the detail which the score sheet represents. The emphasis was thrown rather upon the great need for development of personality on the part of the novice. Increased information as to subject-matter and the normal teaching processes is easier to gain compared to those rare and fugitive qualities which constitute the power to inspire. Here the words of Miss Lillian B. Lewis, leader of the conference must be quoted:

"As the result of honestly looking at my own reflection and also as the result of rather inquisitive conversations with a number of teachers on our own staff, I came to the conclusion that great teachers are limited in number, on the average, to about one in a century. By that I mean such teachers as Socrates who seemed to be so thoroughly inspired that nothing or no one, not even the sentence of death hanging over his head could stop him from teaching.

"I have no doubt but that we all have moments when we reach the heights, when we realize a little of the fire of inspiration and experience the thrill that comes across the invisible wires between teacher and pupils, when we know somehow that we have planted good seed on good ground and that it has actually taken root. Nevertheless I am quite sure that many of us were never meant to be teachers. To quote a line

	Pupil-Teacher's Estimate	Critic Teacher's Estimate	SCORE SHEET
1			Name of Teacher
2			Class _____ Date _____
3			I. Personality 20 Points
4			A. Appearance
5			1. Physique—healthy, posture, skin, hair, —defects
6			2. Dress—style—appropriate, too dressy —untidy
7			B. General Culture
8			1. Manners
9			2. Voice—quality
10			3. Enunciation
11			4. English
12			5. Modesty
13			6. Habits
14			C. Attitude
15			1. Enthusiasm, zeal, enjoyment of work
16			2. Sincerity, reliability, responsibility
17			3. Toward vocation—professional spirit
18			4. Toward pupils—vicariousness, sympathy
19			5. Toward criticism
20			6. Cooperation with school customs
21			7. Loyalty—law-abiding
22			8. Fairness
23			9. Tact
24			10. Leadership
25			11. Tolerance
26			12. Self-control, maturity of judgment
27			II. General Intelligence 10 Points
28			1. Scholarship—subject matter
29			2. Breadth of view
30			3. General information on allied subjects, current events, etc.
31			4. Knowledge of human psychology
32			5. Knowledge of psychological and educational methods
33			6. Quickness of perception—sensitivity to situation
34			7. Sense of humor
35			8. Ability to grow
36			9. Self-criticism
37			10. Creative ability
38			III. Technique of Teaching 20 Points
39			1. Written plan for teaching
40			2. Organization of materials
41			3. Emphasis on essentials, power to discriminate between essentials and details
42			4. Initiative, resource, device, use of material, blackboard
43			5. Apportionment of time
44			6. Ability to get and hold attention
45			7. Ability to secure pupil activity
46			8. Thoroughness, drill
47			9. Force, assurance
48			10. Leadership, not carried away by pupils' aggressiveness
49			11. Discipline
50			12. Power to judge pupils' ability
			13. Questioning
			a. For facts
			b. For judgment
			c. Adaptation to pupils' ability
			d. Clear and concise
			e. Inclusive
			f. Avoidance of leading or <i>yes</i> and <i>no</i> questions
			g. Confusing, repeated, misleading questions
			h. Challenging

Directions: Mark each qualification in the space provided, on the basis of 10 points for each qualification mentioned. The total perfect score is 500. Divide by 5 and the result is your self-estimated grade.

I once read—I do not recall the author—"We are cunning plaster casts posing as marble statues." On the other hand I fully believe that many a real teacher who might have been a tremendous inspirational power has been ruined by the shackles imposed by the cast-iron system of American public schools.

"Any intelligent teacher can learn all the approved methods. She may cultivate voice, manner, tact. In fact she may become a scholar in her own particular line but if she is hampered by somebody else's system and is not as free as a Socrates to give that which she, and only she in the whole world, has to give, she will never become a great teacher.

"I cannot but believe that what we lack as teachers is the power to inspire. I see teachers about me, and myself too, fretting over harassing details that really are not important at all. Just consider for a minute the continuous changes that are being advocated year after year in our teaching methods. They always make me think of the frequent change in style of women's clothes and how women are slaves to the dictates of fashion, yet we all know that does not change the woman herself an iota.

"I do thoroughly believe in teacher training, particularly under the existing conditions. With all these student-teachers coming to us, good, bad, indifferent, it is up to us to do what lies in our power to make them into teachers who can at least carry on as well as we have or perhaps better. There is just one plea that I would like to make to all critic teachers, especially to myself. I wish more than I can say that we may not be the cause of making our student-teachers lose sight of the mountain top because we get them tangled up in the undergrowth. Every teacher will, sooner or later, learn what I have called the tricks of the trade and the short cuts, but that seems to me the most rudimentary part of teaching. I wish we might think more of the potential power to inspire, that may possibly be in our student-teachers because that power ought to be nursed as the most precious asset in the teaching profession.

"I believe the power to inspire can, to some extent, be acquired. It has its roots in honesty of thought and courage of expression. Add to that any vital, absorbing interest to which you are willing to give undivided attention until you are soaked in it to the exclusion of everything else, and you will find within yourself, temporarily at least, the power to inspire. It is a power that, once found, demands constant training and exercise; otherwise it will become atrophied. Inspiration evaporates too quickly in an atmosphere of fear or dishonesty, nor can it ever survive the touch of conventional shackles."

Our third topic, "How to widen the horizon of the pupil-teacher," implies a problem and a challenge which taxes to the utmost the powers of the critic teacher. Obscurity of vision arises from many causes. Inadequate knowledge of subject-matter, the academic rather than the human approach in teaching, limitations of cultural experience, and lack of opportunity to build up contacts with acknowledged leadership, and most of all, the commercial rather than the professional attitude towards one's work—these must be

cleared away before the prospective teacher may view with unclouded eyes the true possibilities of her chosen career. Perhaps no critic teacher may anticipate a large degree of success along this line, for the horizon widens only as one travels into the unknown. But at least the pupil's eyes may be opened to the potentialities of future experience.

It is quite within the province of the guide to warn the novice against the dangers of too narrow specialization, and to emphasize the continuity of human life which makes it so important to get light on one's subject from other fields, and above all, to give timely advice regarding graduate work or private studies.

Again, the whole conception of teaching which places the pupil in the center of the stage and makes his experience the key to presentation, might be much enlarged in the mind of the pupil-teacher. To many of our candidates the notion of reality in practice teaching is as rare as it was in their own classroom experience. Yet the aids to reality, participation and project, are abundant, awaiting appropriation by those who are on the lookout for them.

Closely related is the duty of the critic teacher to stimulate the novice to a desire to travel, beginning with those places in the vicinity which have been scenes in the world's historical drama. Too often, the

capacity to live in the past is never cultivated, even amid the associations which have the power to thrill.

Many a pupil-teacher is severely handicapped by lack of cultural contacts in the family and home, while all need the broadening effects of professional intercourse. Here the responsibility of the critic teacher is doubled. The novice should be encouraged to see and hear as much good teaching and good speaking as possible, to cultivate friends among those interested in the same field, and to learn from people as well as from books. Membership in professional organizations should be recommended and the candidate sponsored if possible. The importance of keeping up to date in professional literature should be pointed out. Here we come close to the subject of the highest goal, the cultivation of a true professional spirit and ideal. On every hand criticism of the unprofessional physician, lawyer, and clergyman is heard, and, alas, of the unprofessional teacher, also. Many a candidate in our teacher training institutions has never conceived the notion of a professional ideal not from conscious neglect or indifference but because she has never looked at it and coveted it for her own. Once seen, it must needs be followed, like the Grail, to the end. If the critic teacher is privileged to point out this vision, she has fulfilled her highest function.

Bee Sting Tests

BY CHARLES GUILFORD, EASTERN HIGH SCHOOL, WASHINGTON, D.C.

A Bee Sting Test is a one word answer test given during the first five minutes of the recitation period on the previous homework assignment.

A quarter of a sheet of regular sized composition paper is placed on the desk of the pupils by a regularly appointed pupil while they are copying the next day's homework assignment. They then prepare their papers for the test by placing their names, sections, date, and period at the top, and numbering the lines at the left hand edge of the paper from one to ten.

Much depends upon the kind of start a recitation period is given, so the pupils understand that the first question will be given after a reasonable length of time for preparing the paper, whether all are ready or not. As a result, there are few delinquents, and the pupils enter class full of their subject, and ready for a good active start.

In this age of the radio and other distractions, where we are called upon to give our attention to two or more things at the same time, pupils are losing their power of concentration, through no fault of their own. To combat this degenerating handicap, the pupils are given to understand, that each of the ten questions will be dictated but once by the teacher, in a clear and audible tone. The only exceptions to this rule are such emergencies as a book dropping on the floor, or a boisterous cough by some pupil. This has been a great help in training the pupils to pay closer attention to what is said in class.

After dictating each question, the teacher pauses just a moment to give the pupils time to think of and write the answer. Pens are put down after the last pause and the papers passed to the pupil in front, behind, or to the right or left at the teacher's discretion. The pupils mark with pencils as the teacher calls out the correct answer to each of the ten questions. This is the thrilling part of the test period, when smiles and jovial comments are made as the dictated answers agree with the answers each pupil wrote. Ten per cent is given for each correct answer, and the mark recorded at the top of the paper, which is then returned to its owner.

Each records his daily mark on an individual progressive graph, and the test papers are collected. The goal sought by each is to keep the line of the graph as straight and as high on the scale as possible. This gives the pupil an opportunity to compete with his own record, as well as the records of his classmates. Another occasion for a thrill comes when the teacher asks after each test for all those who made a hundred to raise their hands, then the nineties, the eighties, the seventies and finally, all whose graph lines took upward trends for the day.

At the end of the advisory period of six weeks, each pupil figures from his graph what his average for the period has been, by dividing the sum of his marks by the number of tests taken. During some free period the teacher has advanced students compute each pu-

pil's average from the daily tests that were collected. Teacher and pupil then compare averages and make corrections. This check on the teacher seems to give the pupils renewed faith in the teacher's integrity. This average counts about one-fourth or one-fifth in computing the final mark for the advisory period.

The Bee Sting Test has its merits and demerits. Some of its advantages are as follows: It makes the students study more thoroughly by using the dictionary and atlas, for among each ten questions is found a geographical location and a word to define. So much of the subject matter the High School child has to master is beyond his present day interests, and some artificial means of motivation for study has to be supplied such as competition or possibilities of making high test marks. The degree of study depends upon the difficulty of the test. The many opportunities for competition are evidenced by the oft repeated question of the pupil to his neighbors of "What did you get?" This is the daily chorus after each Bee Sting Test.

The test affords frequent opportunities for the pupils to give good reports to their parents on their progress in school. Instead of waiting a month and a half the parent is afforded a daily report on school work.

The sense of humor so often overlooked by teachers is given attention. Pupils sometimes suggest that the windows be locked tightly so the bee can't get in, or that it was so cold the bee froze last night. When the test is harder than it should be, the pupils call it a bumble bee or yellow jacket test.

This last comment suggests the fine opportunity a skillful teacher has of removing the prejudice or dislike backward children have of history. By making the tests easy enough for them to make high marks, the daily thrills of accomplishment give them a new lease on school life, or, in some cases, the first they have ever had. This is an inspiration to try harder.

The tests afford an opportunity for the pupil to develop the power of judgment in comparing his progress of one week with that of another and he takes a self-interest in his visualized progress.

Often a homework assignment contains some facts that are foreign to the general trend of thought in the assignment, and by caring for them in the preliminary Bee Sting Test, they do not spoil the sequence of the recitation that follows.

The demerits of the test multiply in the hands of an unskillful teacher. The possibility of copying answers may be overcome by changing seats. Dishonesty in marking is minimized if the teacher sees to it that the test is written with ink and marked with pencil. Dashes should be made where answers were omitted. By insisting upon a quiet room while the test is being written, no whispering of answers is possible.

If too much stress is placed upon the Bee Sting Test the pupil is misguided and forms the misconception that homework is the memorizing of details instead of the interrelation of facts in their contribution to a great movement.

No question should be given that would permit

and encourage guessing on the part of pupils, such as one answered by yes or no, or answered by east or west.

No question should be made ridiculously easy, as the pupils will lose confidence in the test and in the teacher.

No question should be too hard as the pupils will become discouraged.

No question should call for some insignificant detail, even though it be mentioned in the homework assignment.

Following will be found types of questions which should be avoided for the above mentioned reasons:

1. Was the astrolabe used to find latitude or longitude?
2. Columbus married the daughter of the governor of what islands?
3. Who discovered America?
4. What word in the Declaration of Independence denotes relationship by blood?

Following will be found questions which have been tried and found worthy of use:

5. What institution preserved learning during the Dark Ages?
6. The First Crusade was directed toward the rescue of what city?
7. The Demarkation Line gave Brazil to what country of Europe?
8. Name the cape at the southern end of Africa.
9. What was the richest country in Europe in the middle of the sixteenth century?
10. What name is given to a narrow strip of land joining two continents?
11. What name is given to a narrow strip of water joining two oceans?
12. England's claim to America was based on the expedition of what explorer?
13. In 1607 what settlement was made in America?
14. The Huguenots were expelled from what country in Europe?
15. Name the colony started by Roger Williams.
16. The Act of Toleration was passed in which colony?
17. How much was paid the Indians for Manhattan island?
18. The Mason and Dixon line formed the southern boundary of which colony?
19. Which colony had two negroes to every white man?
20. What product was used in place of money in Virginia?
21. Who was king of England during the American Revolution?
22. Which American automobile has been named after an Indian chief of pre-Revolutionary war days?
23. Who was the chief author of the Declaration of Independence?
24. Which American victory hastened French aid for America?
25. If a pardon frees a prisoner what word denotes an extension of time?

Answers to the above questions follow:

1. latitude	14. France
2. Madeira	15. Providence
3. Columbus	16. Maryland
4. consanguinity	17. \$24
5. monastery	18. Pennsylvania
6. Jerusalem	19. South Carolina
7. Portugal	20. tobacco
8. Cape of Good Hope	21. George III
9. Spain	22. Pontiac
10. isthmus	23. Thomas Jefferson
11. strait	24. Saratoga
12. John Cabot	25. reprieve
13. Jamestown	

Following will be found a test just as it was given to a class:

1. The revival of learning started in what country of Europe?

2. Paper was brought from China to Europe by what people?

3. Name the first book that was printed.
4. What instrument was used to find degrees of latitude?

5. Portugal sent her first explorers along the coast of what continent?

6. The "Sea of Darkness" referred to what ocean?

7. Name the cape at the southern end of Africa.

8. Who was the first Portuguese to reach India?

9. In what country is Cadiz?

10. Mosques were built by people of what religion?

Answers to the above ten questions follow:

1. Italy	6. Atlantic
2. Arabs	7. Cape of Good Hope
3. Bible	8. Da Gama
4. astrolabe	9. Spain
5. Africa	10. Mohammedans

Pictures—Their Purpose and Use in the Teaching of History

BY FRANCES N. AHL, M.A., GLENDALE HIGH SCHOOL,
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One of the main difficulties that many of the teachers of history have is to keep abreast of the wealth of illustrative material that is available to make their work possess color and interest. Of all the classroom tools that may be used for the vitalization of history pictures hold a preëminent place. What pictures to use and how to use them are often serious problems. In this article I would present briefly the purpose of pictures and suggest different methods for their use. These methods I have experimented with in my classroom and found to be practical. The results have manifested themselves in increased interest in history and increased receptivity on the part of the high school boys and girls.

The purpose of using pictures in the teaching of history is to enrich the experiences of the students in order that they may augment their stores of learning and be more able to reach correct judgments. Pictures supply the visual imagery which the students are seeking as the vehicle for their own thoughts. Pictures interpret language and in turn are interpreted through language. The instructor can never be sure in using words to convey an idea that the images in the minds of her students are identical with, or even similar to, her own mental image. Unless the students have images corresponding to the words used, the idea is not transferred to their minds and they are unable to interpret the thought. For this reason a great deal of teaching never gets across. It is obvious therefore that pictures should be in constant use, and the history teacher should be as zealous concerning the necessary

equipment of her laboratory as the physics or chemistry teachers are concerning theirs.

Before using a picture the teacher should have a clearly defined purpose in mind, and she should be sure that the picture will serve that purpose. She should not yield to the tendency to use illustrations for their own sake; that is, because they are decorative or furnish entertainment or serve as a means of escape from a slow and torpid recitation. Only those pictures should be used which make a definite contribution to the subject in hand. If well selected, they give an air of actuality to the topic in question—to the word of the text or the subject matter of the collateral reading.

The teacher should consider the historical accuracy of the pictorial representation. She should know the scholarship that prepared it. She should not show lantern slides or films to her classes unless she has first viewed them herself. It is possible for a set of slides or films to be historically true and yet have little historical value. It is possible also for them to make history "grotesquely false."

Wall pictures such as the Copley Prints or the Guerin Prints give atmosphere to a history room. Small sizes of the Copley Prints, the Brown or Perry Prints, and pictures taken from the *Mentor* magazine make very satisfactory illustrations. The Lehman Historical Series for Ancient and Modern History are invaluable. For easy handling and preservation as well as for attractive appearance, these pictures need to be mounted on heavy cardboard. A wire may be stretched above the blackboard moulding, and paper clips used

to hang the prints. Such a display may be changed as frequently as the subject matter of the recitations requires. For Ancient History one exhibit might be of the pyramids of Egypt, another of ancient Babylon, still others of the Acropolis of Athens, the cities of ancient Greece or the Etruscan civilization.

Pictures culled from newspapers and magazines and taken from the McKinley Illustrated Topics may be posted on the bulletin board. In the Modern European History course the France of Louis XIV, Prussia under Frederick the Great, the Napoleonic Era, the Industrial Revolution, the Unification of Italy and United Germany are only a few of the many subjects that lend themselves to such pictorial exhibits.

Wall pictures and paper prints are used for motivation—to introduce a subject and to stimulate interest. They often furnish the basis for exercises by supplying detail and color.

Sometimes I circulate sets of pictures from student to student with a definite number of search questions based upon observation and evaluation of detail. Class discussion and comments follow the study exercise. The response is alert, enthusiastic, and thoughtful. The individual student is made responsible for the work. Such a method is more satisfactory than one whereby the teacher holds up the pictures and makes comments upon them. For the latter scheme is likely to be reduced to the level of trivial entertainment and, as a result, the students are diverted, passively absorbing or attentive as the case may be.

A limited collection of carefully selected stereographs is a valuable part of a historical laboratory. But the successful use of this equipment necessitates the possession of sufficient stereoscopes to supply each student. Stereographs are particularly helpful in studying detail. It is well to remind the students that there is a number and explanation on the back of each view. These aids should be utilized, and the stereographs should be studied in order.

One of the most effective ways of handling picture material in the high school is with the projection lantern. The ideal machine is one that will project paper prints, photographs, drawings, and solid objects as well as stereopticon slides. Such an instrument accommodates magazines and books of considerable thickness and brings them into proper plane for projection as readily as the flat prints and the photographs.

Sometimes I have students prepare special reports on selected topics and illustrate their material by pictures. For example, while studying ancient Greece a day is given to lantern talks on the home life among the Greeks, Greek clothing, Greek religion, Greek education or Greek sculpture and art. Again, in the study of American History, colonial life is presented or reviewed by a series of lantern reports. The personnel of the Constitutional Convention is made more real when during the discussion of this subject pictures of Washington, Franklin, Madison, Hamilton, etc. are flashed on the screen.

Occasionally the instructor may give an illustrated talk to the class instead of having the reports by the students. If she has traveled widely or made special study of various periods of art and architecture or conditions of life in particular countries or territories, she may well give of the fruit of her experience through informal lectures with a projection lantern. In such manner a recitation or two in Ancient and Medieval History might be spent with the temples and pyramids of Egypt, another with the civilization of the Tigris-Euphrates Valley, still others with Greek, Roman, Moslem, and Gothic architecture or the art of the Renaissance period.

Similarly the courses in Modern European and American History should be vitalized. The story of Russia, France or Italy can be developed through the use of pictures. The history of American industry, American commerce, American farming, American art, in short, the institutional development of America can be visualized and vitalized and thereby made more understandable and interesting by the constant use of pictures.

Pictures for these experiments are selected from the flat prints, from such magazines as the *Mentor* and the *National Geographic*, and the best pictorial histories. (The *Pageant of America*, Yale University Press, should be familiar to every teacher of American History.) Sets of stereopticon slides are obtained at a nominal charge from the Extension Department of the University of California. Much in the way of collecting pictures can be accomplished through co-operative activity among the boys and girls.

The newest tool added to the equipment of the history laboratory is the motion picture. The most extensive effort yet made to combine historical scholarship with the art and business of photoplay production is that of the Yale University Press. Thirty-three film-dramas of the story of America are prepared primarily for use in the schools. These pictures bring the student as near to the actualities of life in the past as is possible. "There has been built up for him," says Professor Knowlton, "a mosaic so fine that no detail pertinent to the whole has been neglected."

The history laboratory equipped for all types of picture service includes wall pictures, paper prints, stereographs and stereoscopes, a stereopticon lantern, and a motion picture projector. A metal filing case for the print collection is also essential.

The foregoing discussion is only suggestive and could be expanded indefinitely. Pictures carefully selected and well organized should be used extensively to give life and significance to history. The method employed must of necessity depend upon the type of picture to be used and the teaching purpose in mind. If the teacher is to be successful she must practice different methods until she becomes skilled in handling them and feels able to cope with real problems that challenge her forceful and progressive spirit. New goals for achievement in the use of pictures will open unto her.

Presidential Election Year Activities

BY MIRIAM B. UNDERHILL, GRADUATE STUDENT, TEACHERS COLLEGE, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

A presidential election year is a boon to the alert social science teacher. It is welcomed as an opportunity to enrich and enliven the class work in government and current events. Then, the air, the periodicals, and the conversations are filled with discussions of things political. Political terms, customs and theories, frequently vague to the students in non-election years, become clear and explicit through practical examples. The framework of government is seen to move and "dry and dead government" becomes a vital subject. The student will hear discussions of candidates and issues wherever he goes. Perhaps some of his family are "in politics." Perhaps there are animated arguments, and even rifts, in the family circle. Studying a campaign that already has been fought four, or twelve, or twenty years ago, is not so interesting for a student, but if he intelligently lives through and understands a current presidential campaign he will be the more able sympathetically to understand and appreciate past campaigns.

Each teacher will find conditions and problems that are unique to his school and community and each teacher will vary his program accordingly. The following account of certain activities which were successfully carried out in a boarding and day school for girls may offer a few suggestions for teachers who wish to arouse interest in the coming campaign.

The spring preceding the actual election made an excellent starting place. We followed the newspaper reports of booms for candidates and noted the various "hats in the ring." As some states held their primaries to choose delegates for the national convention, we found it easy and interesting to understand such terms as "closed primary," "open primary," "direct primary," and "presidential primary." A blank map of the United States served to record the primary preferences of the parties before the National Conventions actually met.

Our own state did not hold primaries, so we gave some attention to the choosing of delegates by state conventions. An interesting opportunity, to show how such choices are manipulated by politicians rather than made freely by the people, was unwittingly offered by one member of the class whose father was influential in state politics. The day before the state nominating convention was to be held this pupil announced, "You said we had a state convention, but I don't think we do. Last night Senator Blank called up Daddy and said, 'It's all decided. You are going to the convention.'"

School closed before the national conventions met in the summer, but before the class disbanded, much preliminary information was obtained. We found when and where the two conventions were to meet, by whom the choice of a city was made, and what considerations prompted these selections. We knew who the tempo-

rary chairmen were to be; we knew some of the issues that would be included in the platforms; we knew the order of business at the convention; we knew how the nominating speeches would be made, and we knew the order of balloting. All this helped us to follow in our own homes the newspaper and radio reports of both conventions.

With the fall term the social science classes from the eighth to the twelfth grades organized the whole school for the campaign. We had three parties; Republicans, Democrats, and Socialists. A registration day for voters was held in the gymnasium. Members of each party were active in attempting to secure a full registration. A closed primary was held to nominate "electors,"—the same number to which the state was entitled, but members of our school body.

Posters flaunting the Republican elephant and the Democratic donkey confronted us at the turn of the stairs, and original party songs became familiar to our ears. The Democrats appropriately used the tune of "The Sidewalks of New York," but the Socialists rallied at the sound of "Onward Christian Soldiers."

Current Events groups conducted a "School of Politics" during morning assemblies to explain phases of the campaign, qualifications of candidates, issues to be faced, and the provisions of the Constitution regarding the election of the president. A large blackboard map of the United States was used to illustrate the explanations of the electors and electoral votes. A rally was held the day before the election itself.

Mimeographed ballots were replicas of the state ballots with the exception of the electors' names. These, of course, were the names of the pupils and teachers who had been nominated to serve their party as electors. The voting booths were the curtained shower rooms and each voter was carefully checked up on the voting lists to be sure she had registered. The choosing of electors in the school, who were pledged to vote for their party candidates in the same manner the state electors were, made clear to the pupils why the country knows the day following the election who will be the next chief executive even though the electors do not officially vote for him until January.

The first Wednesday of the following January the students were reminded of the constitutional provisions that electors should meet to vote for president in the capital cities of their respective states. Newspapers and movies testified that this was actually done. Again, on the second Wednesday in February, the accounts of the rather hilarious counting of the votes in Congress were a further reminder of constitutional provisions. On March 4 we listened to the inaugural address over the radio.

An activity of this sort has many ramifications which will readily occur to the teacher. Along with the election of the President goes the election for

members of Congress, which may be made an activity in itself. The state may be having a gubernatorial contest so that the voter's attention is divided. Frequently he makes no attempt to remember any but the candidates for outstanding offices and the rest of the ticket is swept in with the victorious leader.

The supervision of this activity attempted throughout to make the youthful campaigners present arguments based on fact rather than on political slogans. The attention was focused on reasoned argument and intelligent criticism rather than on emotional appeal and oratorical hot air.

The Constitution and the Teacher

BY H. ARNOLD BENNETT, STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE AT BUFFALO

For some reason, perhaps in part because the day-by-day responsibilities of teaching are so energy-consuming, the teacher is often ignorant of educational developments, particularly when these are of such a character as not to receive much attention in the public press. Consider, in this connection, the matter of legislative control of the curriculum in respect to the teaching of the Constitution. How many teachers are aware of the well-nigh universal requirement that the Constitution be taught in the public schools of the United States? In 1913, indeed, only nine states required by the law the teaching of the Constitution in grade schools. But by 1923 nearly half of the states specifically required instruction in the Constitution in the public elementary schools.¹ And by the close of 1929 at least three-fourths of the states prescribed instruction in the Constitution in grade schools, and *all but five*² of the states required Constitutional instruction in either the elementary or the high schools or in both. Perhaps by the close of another legislative session or two in these five states, they also will have laws in force similar to those of the other forty-three.

Just what responsibilities do the teachers assume under these laws? Here, for example, are the provisions of the most recent of the statutes to be enacted, that of Texas. The law now in effect does not specifically require instruction in the Constitution in the elementary school,³ although the teaching of "civil government" is required in all the public schools of the state. But in respect to the teaching of the Constitution in the educational institutions above the grade school level, the act is much more precise. The law prescribes "a course of instruction in the Constitutions of the United States and of Texas which shall be a combined course in both Constitutions, and which shall be given for at least one-half hour each week of the school year or at least one hour each week for one-half of the school year or the equivalent thereof." The passing of "a satisfactory examination" in such a course is requisite for high school graduation. The requirements respecting the teaching of the Constitution in government-supported colleges and universities are not less exacting, the duration of the course in this case being "not less than eighteen recitations of fifty minutes or more." And college and university students also, as a requisite for graduation, must pass "a satisfactory examination" in such a course. For the certification of a teacher, pursuit of the course in fed-

eral and state constitutions "of the grade of instruction upon which he is applying for the certificate" is required, or in lieu thereof the passing of an examination "set by the State Superintendent of Public Instruction on the Constitutions of the United States and of Texas."

Such are the essentials of the Texas law.⁴ The laws of the majority of the other states requiring the teaching of the Constitution are similar to the Texas statute,⁵ though somewhat less detailed. Yet a number of them, unlike that of Texas, specifically provide a penalty for non-compliance with the law. The Arizona statute, for example, stipulates that failure to teach the state or federal constitutions as prescribed shall constitute "sufficient cause" for the removal of the offending teacher. Negligent superintendents are subject to the same liability. The Indiana law imposes a fine upon school officials who fail to enforce the provision requiring Constitutional instruction. Kansas goes so far as to impose a fine or a jail sentence or both upon "any person" convicted of violating the statute requiring Constitutional study.

The growing emphasis upon the teaching of the Constitution of the United States is well exemplified by what took place in Massachusetts and Maine. In each of these states the law had originally provided for instruction in civics. But in 1923 in Massachusetts, and two years later in Maine, the laws in question were amended for the sole purpose of stipulating that the work in civics must include instruction in the United States Constitution.⁶

For the American teacher, then, the question today is not, "Shall I teach the Constitution?" It is rather, "How shall I teach it?"

I have before me an outline prepared by a group of social science teachers in a medium-sized eastern city. It is intended to serve as a guide to the teaching of the Constitution in the upper-elementary grades. It has an extensive bibliography. An interesting feature is the inclusion of a number of pithy comments by leaders of the constitutional convention of 1787. The pamphlet undoubtedly will be a real help to all the teachers concerned who use it diligently. Perhaps this outline provides a basis for as intensive a study of the Constitution as is practicable in the elementary grades. The fact that less than one-third is devoted to an analysis of the Constitution itself is explained in the pamphlet's own statement of its function, in

that "it is intended to lay the foundation for a more technical study of the Constitution later."

In the entire outline there is scarcely a suggestion of the growth of the Constitution by any method other than formal amendment. In view of the purposes of the syllabus perhaps such an omission is not a defect, but the effect might be to mislead the teacher and puzzle the student. Thus the syllabus speaks of the President's cabinet. Yet no provision for the Cabinet, as such, is made in the Constitution. How, then, did it come into being? "Name the lower federal courts," instructs the syllabus. But how did these "lower federal courts" come to be? The Constitution does not name them. Under the topic "What our Constitution gives to us as citizens" are to be found the statements, among others, "Right of trial by jury" and "Protection of life, liberty, and property." But if a man were haled into court on a charge of reckless driving he could not demand a jury trial on the basis of the United States Constitution. For the Supreme Court has so interpreted our supreme law. And just what measure of protection is accorded our life, liberty, and property is determined in the last analysis by that same Supreme Court.

And so the first question which this paper would leave with the reader is: In our teaching of the Constitution, particularly in the high school and teacher-training institution, are we giving adequate attention to the growth, the development, the expansion of the Constitution by statutory elaboration, executive order, custom, and particularly judicial decision?⁷

And the first question suggests a second: Are we not a bit too prone to teach the Constitution as a finished document—as the last word in government, as embodying certain principles which under no conditions should be modified? In an address before the National Education Association at its July, 1930, meeting, William John Cooper, United States Commissioner of Education, expressed himself thus:

This government of checks and balances still remains in a day of increased powers, frequently bringing confusion and helplessness rather than business efficiency in the discharge of these powers. The machinery of government has not been revised to keep pace with the changed functions of government.⁸

Now neither Commissioner Cooper nor the administration of which he is a part could conceivably be described as radical. But mark you what Commissioner Cooper has said. He suggests that the doctrine of checks and balances—perhaps the most important difference, broadly conceived, between our government and that of other leading democratic countries—"frequently brings confusion and helplessness." Dr. Cooper, of course, is by no means the first intelligent observer of our government to criticize the doctrine of checks and balances. And it is not in point here to argue for or against the principle as a governmental policy. But enough has been said to suggest that there is at least some ground for calling in question the validity of the doctrine today. How, then, should we teach the doctrine of checks and balances? Should we teach it as a principle which, because one of the

original and fundamental features of our government, must be above criticism? Or shall we, while not failing to treat of the historical basis and modern defense of the theory, permit our pupils to note and examine the shortcomings of the doctrine, thereby incidentally preparing our students for the possible ultimate substantial modification or even abandonment of the famous checks and balances principle? And the same question may be asked in respect to certain other well-established practices or principles of our government, such as the "lame-duck" Congressional session, the method of treaty ratification, the exemption of federal securities from state taxation, and even the equality of representation in the Senate.

But, someone objects, will not the fostering of such an attitude lead to the adoption of one ill-conceived Constitutional amendment after another? Will not, indeed, such a policy promote radicalism?

The answer is, "No." In the first place, as every civics student knows, the amending of our Constitution is much more difficult than the enactment of statute law. In the second place, attention as advocated to the methods, other than formal amendment, of Constitutional growth, should suggest that in the effort to achieve a certain reform, the possibilities of these other methods be exhausted before resort is had to formal amendment.

Finally, history shows the futility of attempts to suppress thought. The child of such suppression is radicalism itself. When we as teachers seek to discourage, upon the part of our students, a healthy questioning attitude towards our institutions, by implication we proclaim the perfection of those institutions. This is a false thesis. Disillusionment must come to our students some day. The tendency then may well be for them to exaggerate the evils in our institutions and belittle the good; indeed, like the nihilists of Russia, some may want to tear down the whole existing structure.

The saving feature, perhaps, of the present industrial depression is the impetus it has given to proposals looking towards fundamental social readjustments. "I believe this current crisis," writes Raymond B. Fosdick, "is far deeper and more revolutionary in character than the dislocations of an ordinary panic. . . . Certainly we are living at a point in history when changes of a sweeping nature are in the making."⁹ Such changes inevitably will be political as well as economic. There is in prospect a period of Constitutional growth comparable to the great nationalistic development of the last century. Teacher leadership, in search of a challenge, need look no further.¹⁰

⁷ Flanders, J. K., *Legislative Control of the Elementary Curriculum* (1925), p. 40.

⁸ These five states are Connecticut, Maryland, Mississippi, Montana, and Wisconsin. A law requiring the teaching of civics in elementary schools, however, is in effect in each of these states. According to Flanders, op. cit., p. 40, Wisconsin required the teaching of the Constitution in 1903, and Maryland in 1903 and 1913.

⁹ On March 18, 1929, a law was approved by the Governor of Texas requiring the teaching of the Constitution in grades

six and seven of the elementary schools as well as in high schools and government-supported colleges and universities. This law, however, was repealed before it actually took effect.

⁴ The Texas law will be found in *General Laws of Texas, Forty-first Legislature, Second Called Session*, Ch. 83.

⁵ The most important difference between the Texas law and most of the other state laws pertaining to the teaching of the Constitution is that, as stated above, the Texas law does not specifically require instruction in the Constitution below the high school.

⁶ The National Security League, assisted by other organizations, particularly the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, has played a very active part in securing state legislation requiring the teaching of the Constitution. See "The Report of the Committee on Instruction of the American

Political Science Association," *The Historical Outlook*, Vol. XVI, No. 5, May, 1925, pp. 207-11.

⁷ An elaboration of this suggestion will be found in an article by the present writer in *The Historical Outlook*, Vol. XX, No. 7, Nov., 1929, pp. 337-41.

⁸ *School and Society*, Vol. XXXII, No. 812, July 19, 1930, p. 75. Dr. Cooper's address is printed in full in this issue.

⁹ "The New Year: A Tremendous Challenge," *The New York Times Magazine*, December 27, 1931, pp. 1-2.

¹⁰ The writer of this paper is undertaking a comprehensive survey of the teaching of the Constitution. He would feel greatly indebted to teachers who have worked out successful methods of teaching the Constitution in any of the grades, high school, or college, if they would write him concerning what they are doing in this regard.

History Teaching in Other Lands

Teaching of History in the Schools of Poland

BY DR. HANNA POHOSKA, TRANSLATION BY DR. JOSEPH STRAYER, PRINCETON UNIVERSITY AND RUTH McMURRY, TEACHERS COLLEGE, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

History in the Elementary Schools

A BRIEF RETROSPECT

History has been a subject of instruction in our elementary schools only in recent years, especially since the World War.

When the Polish government of the eighteenth century created a Commission of Public Education, that is, the first Ministry of Public Instruction, this commission introduced history as a subject for the secondary schools only. History was not introduced into the elementary, or, as they were then called, "parochial schools." This was because these schools included only the first four years of instruction, and because the educational leaders of the period felt that a limited course of study, reading, writing, arithmetic, moral instruction, and a few ideas of economics would be enough for the common people.

After the partitions and the fall of Poland, educa-

tion had to develop in a very different way. It fell under the very strict control of foreigners, and the Poles themselves were able to take the initiative in organizing public instruction only for a few short periods. Such periods were the years 1806 to 1815 in the Duchy of Warsaw, 1815 to 1830 in the Congress Kingdom, 1862 to 1863 in the district of Great Poland, 1867 to 1914 in the regions under Austrian domination, and 1906 to 1914 in the Russian part of the country. In this last period, there was no reform of the elementary schools.

During these moments of independent work, several attempts were made to expand the curriculum of the elementary schools by introducing the study of history, but all efforts in this direction were slowed up by the reactionary movements of succeeding periods. In the last decades before the World War, in Austrian, Prussian, and Russian Poland the elementary schools still gave only four years of instruction. History as an independent subject was unknown. In the schools under Prussian or Russian domination, historical subjects were used as material for much of the reading in the courses in the "dominant" language, that is to say, German or Russian, but these subjects were taken from the history of Germany or Russia. In the public schools controlled by Austria, conditions were almost the same, for although these schools were Polish, and controlled by Polish authorities, the Ministry of Public Instruction of the Hapsburg Monarchy saw to it that the Polish reading-books contained a suitable number of stories taken from the history of the dynasty and the monarchy.

Naturally, the above remarks apply only to official instruction. Many patriots and patriotic associations, moved by the desire to maintain national feeling dur-

Editor's Note.—This is the thirteenth installment of the reports of the Commission on History Teaching appointed by the International Committee of Historical Sciences. The Commission is composed of the following: Professor Gustave Glotz (France), Chairman; Dr. Otto Brandt (Germany), Secretary and Reporter; Don Rafael Altamira (Spain), Professor Edv. Bull (Norway), Senator C. Calisse (Italy), Dr. W. Carlgren (Sweden), Count Alfonso Celso (Brazil), Professor A. Domanovsky (Hungary), His Excellency Augustin Edwards (Chile), Professor M. Handelsman (Poland), Professor Frans van Kalken (Belgium), Professor A. C. Krey (United States of America), Professor C. Marinescu (Romania), Dr. H. Nabholz (Switzerland), Mme. Marie Nielson (Denmark), Dr. M. Pokrovsky (U.S.S.R.), Dr. J. Susta (Czechoslovakia), Professor Tenhaeff (Netherlands).

The reports will appear in full in the *Bulletin of the International Committee of Historical Sciences*, subscriptions to which (at \$1.00 for three numbers, or 40 cents a number) may be placed with Faxon and Co., 83 Francis Street, Boston, Mass.

ing the period of bondage, spread knowledge of national history among the people. From the beginning of the nineteenth century, manuals and popular books of this sort were produced. These works had a very marked patriotic tendency, and, though without much scientific value, they had a great emotional influence and created interest in history. These books, and much of the teaching of history, were secret works, spied on and attacked by the oppressors. During more than a century of servitude the hidden work of teaching Polish history did not cease, though it naturally lacked uniformity and fixed standards, and could not take the place of real instruction in history. The historical knowledge of a Pole who had not gone to a secondary school, where universal history was taught at a rather advanced stage, was minimal.

The situation was radically changed, not only in 1918 when the independent state of Poland was created, but even during the War, when Polish organizations, called on to carry on education, began to be formed in regions occupied by the Germans and Austrians. These organizations, which had been created by citizens who wished to form new men, conscious of their duties, recognized the necessity of introducing the teaching of history in the elementary schools. At the same time the elementary school course was made seven instead of four years.

As soon as the Polish state was formed, the Ministry of Religions and Public Instruction elaborated plans of study for the elementary schools, which included the teaching of national and world history.

THE PURPOSE OF THE TEACHING OF HISTORY IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS

Defining the purpose of the teaching of history in elementary schools is not an easy task, if you consider the fact that the means for realizing this purpose are very limited and that the historical knowledge given at this level is at best a substitute for real historical knowledge. As a matter of fact, the study of history is impossible before the age of 13 or 14, since it is impossible for the pupil to understand the inner meaning of historical facts or the genetic development of events before that age. What is called the study of history in the elementary school is really only the assimilation of certain information in the field of history, given in the form of historical stories. As a general thing, it is the fixed opinion in Poland that neither pragmatic nor genetic connections should appear in the study of history before the eighth school year, with the exception of a few problems in the upper classes.

The official programs concerning the study of history in elementary schools, drawn up in 1920, 1925, and 1928, are practically identical in their definitions of the purpose of the teaching of history. According to these programs the purpose of this instruction consists of the following things:

1. In teaching the children the most important events in the past of the nation; social and political organization (in the editions of 1925 and 1928 "national" is substituted for "political"), the principal

events and great personages in the history of the nation, the principal happenings of world history.

2. In awakening in the pupils interest in national affairs, and in the past, the present, and the future of the country.

3. In preparing the pupils to read simple books on historical subjects.

4. In giving them an idea of the collective life of a people.

5. In forming feelings of civic responsibility and recognition of the duties of a citizen.

6. In awakening love for the fatherland and fellow-citizens.

In these definitions the first and third deal with the purpose of increasing knowledge, the second with psychic and patriotic aims, the fourth and fifth with social and civic purposes, and the sixth with purely patriotic purposes. The predominance of the national and patriotic element in this program may be easily seen, and we shall speak of it hereafter.

In the spring of 1929, the Division on courses of study and organization in the Ministry proceeded to reorganize the curricula of the elementary schools, and at the same time, they changed the definition of the purposes of instruction. At the present moment, the new course of study, which is still only tentative, introduces new elements of education and instruction in the teaching of history:

Purposes, in the field of instruction:

1. To fix in the minds of the pupils knowledge of the principal periods of national history, and of selected periods of world history.

2. To develop the feeling of connection between the present and the past.

3. To develop the idea that changes may occur in the course of time.

4. To give some comprehension of the ideas of society, a people, a state.

5. To prepare for the reading of simple historical works.

Purposes, in the field of education:

1. To awaken the civic spirit, that is to say, the feeling of belonging to a society, a people, and, above all, a state, as well as the feeling of civic responsibility.

2. To create a feeling of love of fatherland and humanity.

3. To awaken respect for collective and individual work.

In this definition of the aims of the teaching of history, two characteristic traits are apparent; a more precise definition and sub-division of the goals which may be attained in the field of instruction, and a shift in importance from the terms "people" and "patriotism" to the ideas of "citizen," "society," "state," "humanity," "work." In elaborating this program, and in defining its objects, we have taken into account the possibility of adapting it to any child, of whatever nationality, who attends a school within

the political boundaries of Poland, and we have tried to eliminate from it characteristics which are purely patriotic, and which children of other nationalities would have difficulty in understanding. It is not a question of limiting, or what is worse of excluding the feeling of patriotism, but of combining it with understanding of duties of the state as a whole and with love of mankind. Moreover, a new element is added with the introduction of the movement for "respect for collective and individual work," which may be realized by a description of such labor in courses in history. In this way, the plan of 1930, which becomes operative in the fall of 1930, includes new elements in the definition of the aims of the teaching of history which are a reflection of certain tendencies in present-day Poland, and which show its desire to live on the best possible terms with other peoples and states.

COURSE OF STUDY

All elementary school instruction in Poland is divided into two cycles, one including the first four years; the other the fifth, sixth, and seventh years. This division is caused, first of all, by the necessity of filling in the tremendous gaps which were created in public education during the period of foreign domination. In Polish lands controlled by the Prussians and Russians, the schools were foreign schools for Poles, and in the Russian districts they were very rare, since instruction was not obligatory. The percentage of illiteracy, especially in the eastern provinces was very high. In territories under Austrian rule, where attendance was compulsory, as it was in the Prussian districts, and where the schools were Polish after 1867, the situation was better.

The Polish government after the decree of February 7, 1919, which made attendance obligatory in elementary schools, planned that the typical school should have seven grades. But the construction of a network of such schools in a state with 30,000,000 inhabitants meant the building of a large number of school-houses, the preparation of teachers, etc., and these tasks were rather difficult. However, while in 1921-22 scarcely 66.2 per cent of children of school age attended school, in 1927-28 the Ministry had succeeded in raising the figure to 92.8 per cent, and this percentage is rising every year. In order to make the system of schools complete, in spite of the lack of teachers and buildings, a provisional type of school, called "the incompletely organized school," was introduced, including only the first four years of instruction. Schools are ranked according to the number of teachers, as one class schools, two class schools, three class schools, etc. A complete school has seven teachers and a director.

With this as the basis, the plan of study for each subject must be so arranged that there may be a certain unity and completeness in the work of the first four years for those who will have no further education.

In the teaching of history, things were even more complicated, and three cycles were formed; one for

the third year, one for the fourth, and one for the fifth and sixth. In the seventh year, history is replaced by the study of Poland at the present day. In 1927-28, complete elementary schools were only 31.0 per cent of the total number of elementary schools, but this situation is being improved each year, as more teachers and buildings are added.

The history courses of 1920, 1925, and 1928 were practically identical as far as their content goes, and the few changes which were introduced concerned details and not the principal system.

The outline of the courses from 1920, to 1928 follows:

Third Year, two hours a week—History of Poland in about twenty stories, grouped in two cycles.

Fourth Year, two hours a week—Five cycles from which the teacher may select: (1) "In the service of the fatherland," biographies of important personages; (2) "Relations of Poland with its neighbors"; (3) "Struggles for independence"; (4) "Polish towns and the history of our country"; (5) "History of Poland in the pictures of the painters Matejko and Grottger."

Fifth Year, two hours a week—Talks on the history of ancient times, the Middle Ages, and the modern period in Poland and Europe until 1764.

Sixth Year, two hours a week—Talks on the history of Poland and the world from 1764 to the present.

Seventh Year—Study of Poland at the present day.

This program was severely criticized by both teachers and scholars. The teachers complained that the program was over-loaded, and that there was no way of fulfilling it in the fifth and sixth years. For the fourth year, there was a serious lack of suitable literature. From the scientific point of view, the program was criticized for presenting an excessive number of facts, and because the study of such facts at such a level meant indefiniteness and inaccuracy. There was likewise criticism of the excessive number of political questions, and the lack of any cultural or social elements, though it was recognized that it was impossible to introduce a wider study of the problems of the organization of society at this level.

The new course of study drawn up in 1929, is based on three principles, the necessity of having the same course of study in the elementary schools and in the lower classes of the gymnasium (before, the lower classes of the gymnasium had a different course of study), cutting down the political material in order to give more room for cultural history, and more complete study of the history of the nation.

A new method has been used in drawing up the proposed course of study of 1930. Before this occasion, the courses of study were formulated and published by the Ministry alone, without any co-operation from the public. This time the Ministry drew up a program, submitted it to the criticism of ten, and then thirty or forty specialists, and finally published it as a project, after taking into account the criticisms which were made. In the next few months, the Unions and Associations of educators and teachers are to give their opinion of the project. Their ideas will be taken into consideration when the final draft is made, and the course of study will go into effect in the scholastic year 1930-31.

The new course of study is divided into two cycles instead of the three that existed before. The first cycle is given in the third and fourth years of school, the second in the fifth and sixth years.

In the third year, the subjects for the talks are taken from Polish history from the tenth to the end of the sixteenth century. They fall into four groups, "Introductory talks," "The life of our ancestors," "Life in the old Polish state," "The history of our country." In the course as a whole, sixty per cent of the talks deal with cultural problems, and the rest with political questions.

In the fourth year, the history of Poland from the beginning of the seventeenth to the twentieth century is treated. It is divided into five sections: "The Period of the Great Wars in Poland"; "The Period of Decadence in Poland and the Efforts to Save the Country"; "The Period of the Struggles for Independence"; "The Independent Fatherland"; "The History of the Local Region." Cultural problems furnish thirty-three per cent of the total number of subjects; the other talks deal with political problems.

In the fifth year, the course includes preliminary lessons on ancient history, and Polish and world history to the end of the sixteenth century. The course is divided into four groups: "How Men Lived before the Formation of a Polish State"; "The Period of Organization of the State of Poland, 966 to 1370"; "Life and Customs in the Middle Ages in Europe and in Poland"; "Poland at the Height of Her Power, 1370 to 1572." Half of the talks are on cultural and social problems and the other half on political problems. World history is the subject of forty per cent of the talks; the others deal with Polish history.

In the sixth year, Polish and world history from the seventeenth to the twentieth century is taught. The subdivisions are: "Poland in the Period of the Great Wars, 1572 to 1696"; "Attempts to Reinvigorate Poland and the Final Fall of the Country, 1696 to 1795"; "The Period of Bondage and the Struggles for Independence, 1795 to 1914"; "The Reconstruction of Poland, 1914 to 1929." In this course thirty-five per cent of the talks are concerned with cultural and social problems, sixty-five per cent with political problems, seventy-five per cent with national history, and twenty-five per cent with world history.

This new program is marked by the increase in the number of cultural and social problems, as well as by the fact that they are studied against the contrasting background of world history, for example, in the study of the history of the Middle Ages. The change in the chronological limit to be reached by the fifth year is also important, for this limit is now the sixteenth century and not, as before, the eighteenth.

It was also important to lay stress on the period of the development of the independent state of Poland, and not on the period of subjection. To study the period of the Partitions and the martyrdom of Poland for a whole year left a sad and tragic impression, incomprehensible to children born after independence had been gained. At present, this period is studied for only half a year; descriptions of un-

happiness and suffering are given less room, and on the contrary stress is laid on the moments of strength and health, on creative elements which were struggling for an independent nation and the rebuilding of Poland. An attempt was made to adapt the course to the psychology of free citizens working in a positive way for the good of the country, with no thought of vengeance for the outrages endured for centuries.

Local history has a much more important place in this new course of study. Formerly, it was dealt with only in the fourth year, but now in each of the two first years, a certain amount of time is given to this subject. The precise amount of time depends on the region in which the school is situated, and its immediate environment.

THE METHOD OF TEACHING HISTORY IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

The study of history in elementary schools is based on the principle of instruction through talks on historical subjects. The teacher of history, who in these schools is frequently not a specialist in history, should make his own free narrative and conversation with the pupils the main part of the lessons. He is free to group and arrange the material of the course as he sees fit, but this freedom is strictly limited by the exigencies of historical truth.

The instructions on method in the new course of study show very clearly the need for adhering to the truth in history, and leave no room for the teacher's fantasies in such subjects. The teacher is advised to tell the pupils that certain facts which are not completely proved are only probable.

The teacher is also advised to connect the facts learned with the pupil's previous experience; a thing which may be done, first of all, by excursions to historic spots. The teacher should also try to use illustrative material such as lantern slides, pictures, etc. In order to make the lessons more life-like and real, comparisons with the present and the daily life of the children are suggested; but a warning is given against artificial and forced comparisons which are not connected with the heart of the problem, for such comparisons create erroneous historical associations in the minds of the pupils. The program also recommends the use of songs and poems as illustrations to the study of history in the lower level, but the teacher must explain even to the youngest pupils whether the poem or song was composed at the period which they are discussing, or merely as a commemoration of the event, in order to make its memory last. The teacher should do the same for all readings and stories given to the children in connection with their lessons in history.

In the history classes in the Polish schools, the children do a good deal of drawing. Sometimes they draw imaginary historical pictures, choosing their own subjects, and sometimes pictures of historical emblems and relics. They cut out pictures from newspapers and magazines and collect postal cards and pictures of historical scenes. The authorities lay down no rules for this sort of work, but both the children and the teachers show a great deal of interest and good will.

in these tasks. Many schools, especially those which have the full number of classes and are in the largest cities, work on models illustrative of cultural history, such as old dwellings, castles, etc. These models are made out of plastic clay or small blocks. Moreover, a great deal of attention is given to local history, and many schools are building up their own museums and historical libraries. Some schools already possess interesting collections, such as the finds made in the excavations near the school of Grochow, near Warsaw, which owns many objects connected with the great battle fought not far from the school property in 1831. In other elementary schools, the history teachers give special attention to present-day life in Poland, and have the children make chronicals of current events by means of clippings from the daily newspapers.

In general, the authorities in Poland do not insist on any fixed method for the teaching of history. They only give instructions to teachers who suffer from a lack of initiative and independence, while they leave the others completely free in their choice of methods. They only demand one thing categorically: never teach the children anything by memory work alone, for no one has the right to leave with them vague and confused ideas.

TEXTBOOKS AND OTHER EDUCATIONAL EQUIPMENT

Polish educational circles have considered on several occasions the question of the necessity of the textbook at the elementary school level. Some educators have taken a stand against the textbook, arguing that at this level explanations by the teacher, pictures, drawings, and selected readings are sufficient. On the other hand, it is contended that it is precisely at the elementary school level, where the teacher is usually not a specialist and the pupils have no access to historical sources, as is the case later, that the use of the text is necessary. Its good qualities, it is claimed, and the special knowledge of the author are important aids to successful teaching.

The Ministry has solved this problem by authorizing the use of a text in the fifth and sixth years of elementary school. In the lower classes, the use of a text is allowed the teacher, but not the pupil.

At present, with the introduction of the new course of study, the question of the use of textbooks in the study of history must be reconsidered. All the textbooks which have been used up to the present are adapted to the old course of study.

The Teaching of History in the Schools of the National Minorities

A. RUTHENIANS AND WHITE RUTHENIANS

In Poland the national minorities, which are 31.0 per cent of the population, have their own schools, Ruthenian, White Ruthenian, Jewish, German, etc.

I. In the elementary schools of White Ruthenia, Polish history is taught in Polish from Polish textbooks. There are hardly any secondary schools, and in the seminaries, Polish history is taught from Polish texts, and world history from texts in White Ruthen-

ian, which have been translated from Polish, for example the book of Osterloff and Szuster, "Histoire Universelle," which is old and very mediocre. The reason for this situation is the fact that the intellectuals of White Ruthenia are not yet prepared for educational work, and White Ruthenian literature is in a formative stage. The Polish government is planning to train good teachers for these schools and is organizing courses for the teachers in order to instruct them

PRESENT TENDENCIES AND ASPIRATIONS

Elementary school teachers in Poland form a very active and vigorous group, always anxious to learn new methods and tendencies in education. Through their efforts, expressed in the Teachers' Associations (the largest of which is the Elementary School Teachers' Association, with 40,000 members), and through the coöperation of the authorities, lectures and courses on method have been organized. In this work, the problems of the teaching of history have been given an important place. Likewise, this subject is being discussed with great interest in educational publications, with special reference to the new course of study. In many cases, the elementary school teachers work with the secondary school teachers, and even the professors in higher educational establishments, for example the educational section of the *Société des Amateurs d'Histoire*, or in the section on curricula of the Elementary School Teachers' Association, which has recently united with the Professional Union of Secondary School Teachers.

These associations, and the work of members of the associations, deal not only with problems of method, but also with the spirit which should be found in the teaching of history. Work in the international field arouses real interest and sincere sympathy on our part. Polish teachers are working with the authorities in order to raise the level of knowledge of history in the schools, and to form, through the study of history, good citizens for the state and for humanity.

in Polish and White Ruthenian, for many of them do not know the latter language, and speak Russian.

II. In the Ruthenian schools of the Ukraine, the government has decided that one-, two-, or three-teacher schools are to be taught in Ruthenian. However, such schools are rare, since there are many Poles scattered among the Ruthenian population, who demand "ultraquist," that is to say, bi-lingual schools. Such schools are established on the request of a fixed number of parents of Polish or Ruthenian children. In the bi-lingual schools, the class periods are divided equally, and one part is taught in Polish, the other in Ruthenian. In this way Polish history and geography and literature are taught in the first half of the hour, with Polish textbooks. Therefore, there are no Ruthenian textbooks in history, at least none authorized by the Ministry. The text most frequently used in Ruthenian schools is by B. Gebert and G. Gebertowa, "Stories of General History with Special Notes on the History of Poland, Lithuania, and Ruthenia."

B. GERMANS

Germans are found in Pomerania and Posen. German texts provisionally authorized by the Ministry, are used in their schools. These texts have not been adapted to the needs of the German citizens of Poland, since they were written before the war, 1911-1914. The German "Lehrerverein" of Bydgoszcz is in touch with the authorities, and is writing a new

series of textbooks which will be submitted to the Ministry.

C. JEWS

There are three types of Jewish schools:

1. Schools in which instruction in the Jewish religion is given, but in which the teaching is in Polish. Consequently, history is taught in Polish, and the textbooks are Polish.

2. Orthodox Jewish Hebrew schools. There are about 140 such elementary schools, and several secondary schools. World history is taught without a textbook in Hebrew, and in some cases history is omitted altogether.

3. Yiddish Jewish schools. There are about 100 Yiddish elementary schools, and 4 secondary schools. Polish history is taught in Polish with Polish books. On the contrary, world history is taught in Yiddish without texts, but with the aid of small leaflets written in Yiddish. The Yiddish Teachers' Associations are trying to drop the history of Poland from their curricula, and frequently they do not teach it.

To sum up, we must admit that there are no textbooks in Poland for the schools of the minorities. Some, such as the Germans, use books imported from Germany; others, such as the White Ruthenians, use translations of Polish books; and the rest teach Polish history from Polish texts. As for world history, they are limited to the oral instruction of the teacher, and have no textbooks.

Bibliographies for Teachers of the Social Studies

VI. Economics

BY EDGAR BRUCE WESLEY, HEAD OF SOCIAL STUDIES, UNIVERSITY HIGH SCHOOL, AND ASSISTANT PROFESSOR, COLLEGE OF EDUCATION, UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA

This is the sixth of a series of bibliographies for teachers of the social studies. Ancient, medieval, modern, and American history, and government have been treated in previous numbers of the *Historical Outlook*, and the succeeding one on sociology will complete the present series. The compiler is attempting to select books in each field which are useful, interesting, and authoritative and to make such informative comments as will help teachers in finding those which promise to be most serviceable. The list of names which precedes the bibliography is intended as a suggestive guide for those who wish to investigate more fully the historiography or bibliography of the subject.

The popularity of economics as a subject for high school students has steadily increased. It has achieved this popularity in spite of certain difficulties: the nature of the subject, which, according to some, places

it beyond the grasp of high school students; the fact that it deals with controversial subjects; the problem of securing suitable materials and well trained teachers. Specialists, appreciating the intricacies of their subject, are inclined to say that it is unsuited for presentation to immature minds. This viewpoint as applied to economics has been brushed aside because so many of its topics are not only comprehensible but are actually within the experiences of high school students. To eliminate subjects because they deal with controversial matters is to emasculate the course of study. Economics is a vital and highly controversial subject, and fundamentals rather than peripheral aspects constitute the controversial issues. Indeed, not entirely *in spite of* but partly *because of* this controversial nature economics should be included in one's studies. The controversy is proof of the importance of

the issues involved. The teacher who plans to avoid controversial questions should also plan to shun economics as well as the other social studies.

The third difficulty of teaching economics in high school, namely, that of securing suitable materials and well trained teachers, has been overcome to a considerable extent in the last few years. It seems that the writing of texts for high school students goes through three discernible, though by no means clearly marked, stages. In the first stage, scholars, unacquainted with the needs of pupils, write short, concentrated editions of advanced texts. In the second stage, other authors, realizing the defects of such texts, but not always appreciating, as would a professional scholar, the significance of some of the finer distinctions of the subject, undertake to produce better texts and frequently succeed in doing so but not to the complete satisfaction of both scholar and teacher. In the third stage, authors who have both scholarly training in the subject and pedagogical understanding produce texts which are not mere condensations but possess fullness in the range treated and clarity without a sacrifice of penetration. The third stage has certainly been reached in the production of high school texts in economics. The supply of teachers trained in economics has greatly increased within the past decade, though circumstances often require a teacher not so trained to teach the subject. This situation, however, is improving because of the widespread movement to reduce and systematize the teaching combinations and because of the apparently successful effort in teacher training institutions to lay out a more comprehensive program of training which shall include the social studies instead of only one or two of them.

It is to the teacher that the vitality of economics in the high school is entrusted. He cannot make his subject a living one if he rests content with what he has learned in his college courses, for in that case the richness of detail must soon fade, leaving only the skeletons of ideas that once had body; in time, his approach must lose both actuality and insight. It was this wealth of living detail in the mind of his great teacher, Agassiz, that prompted William James to remark, "No one sees farther into a generalization than his own knowledge of details extends, and you have a greater feeling of weight and solidity about the movement of Agassiz's mind, owing to the continual presence of this great background of special facts, than about the mind of any other man I know." Justice Holmes has applied the same principle to economics in his remarks that economic generalizations are empty to "a mind not filled with economic facts."

This command of economic facts is largely dependent upon a well selected and continuous reading program. Such a program will include keeping abreast of current developments through the reading of (1) such periodicals as *The Annalist*, *The Commercial and Financial Chronicle*, *The Federal Reserve Bulletin*, *The Journal of Political Economy*, and *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, (2) the financial pages of daily newspapers, and (3) articles in magazines of a more general character.

The teacher who wishes to give serious and extended attention to economics will find Harold E. Batson's *Bibliography of Modern Economic Theory, 1870-1929* (Dutton, 1930) a useful, interesting, and stimulating book. It is much more inclusive in both time and scope than its title indicates. The bibliography is a careful piece of critical evaluation, and the author, being an Englishman, is able to give somewhat more detached estimates of American economists than one of their own number would probably be able to give. The use of this bibliography will be enlivened by the author's forthright manner: one book which he discusses contains "a fair proportion of rubbish"; one author writes in a "strange jargon"; and the whole mass of "economic literature seems to increase according to the Malthusian formula without meeting any of the Malthusian checks."

The teacher, engaged in the actual process of classroom instruction, needs to read extensively and intensively in books of three types: those which tell the history of our economic life; those which describe actual mechanisms; and those which construct theories in accordance with both history and actual conditions. The following bibliography represents a selection from such books.

VI. Economics.

A. Authorities.

Böhm-Bawerk, Bullock, Cairnes, Cannan, Carver, Cassel, Clapham, J. B. Clark, J. M. Clark, Commons, Cournot, Davenport, Edgeworth, Ely, Engels, Fairchild, Fetter, Irving Fisher, F. B. Garver, Gossen, Hadley, Hildebrand, Hobson, Stanley Jevons, Keynes, Knapp, Knies, Levasseur, List, Alfred Marshall, Menger, W. C. Mitchell, Quesnay, Pareto, Pigou, Ricardo, Ripley, Roscher, Say, Schmoller, Seager, Seligman, Sismondi, Adam Smith, Taussig, Taylor, Veblen, Walras, A. A. Young.

B. Bibliography.

1. Haney, Lewis H. *History of Economic Thought*. New York, Macmillan. 1911. Revised, 1920.

Traces economic thought both before the evolution of economics as a science and after that development. An adequate discussion of all economic theories except those of recent years.

2. Cassel, Gustav. *Fundamental Thoughts in Economics*. New York, Harcourt, Brace. 1925.

A series of lectures delivered at the University of London by a well known Swedish economist. A readable and clear discussion of economic theory, of price, of the principle of scarcity, and of money. Cassel believes that the theory of price is more fundamental than that of value. Excellent introduction which stimulates the reader to find out the validity of the opinions which this author expresses with considerable conviction.

3. Hammond, J. L. and Barbara. *The Rise of Modern Industry*. New York, Harcourt, Brace. 1926.

An account of the coming of industry and its effects upon modes of living and thinking. In vivid pages the authors present a stern indictment of the employers who, as they believe, were responsible for the misery that attended the industrial revolution.

4. Day, Clive. *History of Commerce*. New York, Longman's. 1907. Revised, 1922.

A brief but comprehensive survey of commerce from ancient times to 1922, with a section devoted to the United States. Packed with information and written with clarity.

5. Gras, Norman S. B. *History of Agriculture in Europe and America*. New York, Crofts, 1925.

A comprehensive survey which stresses the social, political, and economic aspects rather than the details of technical advances.

6. Bogart, Ernest L. *Economic History of the United States*. New York, Longman's. 1907. Revised, 1922.

A simply written survey of our national economic life, factual rather than interpretative. Stresses the period since the Civil War. A widely used text.

7. Mills, Frederick C. *Statistical Methods Applied to Economics and Business*. New York, Holt. 1924.

The high school teacher of economics will probably have little practical use for a book on the statistics of economics, but he should, nevertheless, be conversant with the nature of such volumes. Even a casual examination of one will tend to raise doubts as to the validity of those hasty economic generalizations which pass current for genuine information. The teacher should perhaps know what frequency, average, variation, skewness, correlations, etc., mean as applied to economics. Several excellent books on the statistics of economics could be cited. This one is a fair example.

8. Clay, Henry. *Economics: An Introduction for the General Reader*. Edited by E. E. Agger. New York, Macmillan. 1918.

As its name indicates, this book is designed for the general reader, but teachers may find it useful for review purposes and because it furnishes material which can be utilized in teaching.

9. Thorp, Willard L. *Economic Institutions*. New York, Macmillan. 1928.

A galloping survey of economics in three hundred pages, but a useful one nevertheless. Unusual bibliographies which cite a variety of materials.

10. Ely, Richard T., et al. *Outlines of Economics*. New York, Macmillan. Fifth ed., 1930.

11. Fisher, Irving. *Elementary Principles of Economics*. New York, Macmillan. 1912.

12. Schlichter, Sumner H. *Modern Economic Society*. New York, Holt. 1928.

13. Taussig, F. W. *Principles of Economics*, 2 vols. New York, Macmillan. 1911. Third revised ed., 1921.

There are several general volumes which cover the

whole field of economics. Those selected were designed as college texts. Ely lays stress upon value and exchange. The appendix contains a short history of economic thought and suggestions for teachers and students. Fisher stresses money and distribution and writes with unusual lucidity. Schlichter is one of the younger writers who stresses the social aspects and the institutional as opposed to the theoretical. An especially good chapter on the consumer. Taussig's volumes constitute one of the best general treatments and have long been one of the standard texts.

14. Weld, W. E., and Tostlebe, A. S. *A Case Book for Economics*. Boston, Ginn. 1927.

From a variety of sources the editors have collected a series of cases which illustrate the fundamental economic processes. They furnish that sense of specific reality on which all understanding of economic laws and principles must rest. Many of the selections are interesting reading, and all of them illustrate principles.

15. Marshall, Leon C., and Wiese, Mildred J. *Modern Business*. New York, Macmillan. 1926.

Designed as a survey for high school students, this volume, nevertheless, deserves the careful attention of teachers. It treats of production, personnel, finance, risk, and business organization and contains numerous graphs and a few hints of the statistical aspects of business.

16. Keister, Albert S. *Our Financial System*. New York, Macmillan. 1930.

A remarkably inclusive and extremely useful volume. Written with precision and clarity. Within its covers the reader will find a surprising amount of information about money, financial policies, financial instruments, and financial institutions such as banks, trust companies, insurance companies, business associations, and stock exchanges, and finally a discussion of the social aspects of finances. It also contains graphs, sample copies of checks, bonds, and mortgages.

17. Holdsworth, John T. *Money and Banking*. New York, Appleton, 1914. Revised, 1929.

A widely used, readable, and inclusive text which has gone through repeated editions. It is lacking in fullness but is nevertheless a convenient volume for a summary treatment of the numerous topics which fall within its scope.

18. Escher, Franklin. *Foreign Exchange Explained*. New York, Macmillan. 1920.

A lucid exposition with specific examples, problems, and formulas. The rates have changed but the principles hold. A valuable book for a teacher to use if he wishes to teach the topic in high school.

19. Meeker, J. Edward. *The Work of the Stock Exchange*. New York, Ronald Press. 1922. Revised, 1928.

A readable, descriptive treatment of a somewhat complicated mechanism. Specific enough to afford a real understanding. Sympathetic and non-critical.

20. Reed, Harold L. *Principles of Corporation Finance*. Boston, Houghton, Mifflin. 1925.

The author traces a corporation from its inception to its dissolution. The methods of raising money are adequately treated.

21. Fisher, Irving. *The Money Illusion*. New York, Adelphi, 1928.

A clearly written exposition of the nature of money. A survey of the evils which result from a fluctuating dollar, and a plea for the application of increased economic knowledge, such as the index number, to a solution of the problem. The author is well known for his advocacy of the compensated dollar. In this volume he states in general outline his arguments and shows how his plan would work in connection with recent developments. A fuller consideration of the plan may be found in the author's *Stabilizing the Dollar* (Macmillan, 1920).

22. Woodward, Helen. *Through Many Windows*. New York, Harper's, 1926.

A fascinating description of advertising.

23. Jenks, Jeremiah, and Clark, Walter E. *The Trust Problem*. Garden City, Doubleday, 1917. Fifth revised ed., 1929.

The new addition is practically a new book. It includes chapters on the history of trusts, on the wastes of competition, on prices, and on the various aspects of trusts and their control. The appendix, consisting of laws, decisions, etc., occupies about half the book.

24. Gilbert, Chester G., and Pogue, Joseph E. *America's Power Resources*. New York, Century, 1921.

A survey of our energy resources—coal, oil, gas, and water power. The development and significance of water power has increased enormously since the publication of this volume, but it furnishes the basis for an understanding of present issues.

25. Raushenbush, H. S., and Laidler, Harry W. *Power Control*. New York, New Republic, Inc. 1928.

A scathing arraignment, supported by specific citations, of power companies. Traces the steps which resulted in the loss by utility commissions of the power to regulate electric rates.

26. Chase, Stuart. *The Tragedy of Waste*. New York, Macmillan, 1925.

27. ———. *Your Money's Worth*. New York, Macmillan, 1927.

The first is a severe indictment of industry and business, charging them with waste and greed. The second is a critical examination and shows that truth in advertising is as yet merely a slogan. The author also indicts the United States for not releasing the information concerning the quality and prices of goods which it has collected at public expense.

28. Clark, John Maurice. *Social Control of Business*. Chicago, U. of C. Press, 1926.

Is society in control of industry, or does the machine dominate society? Professor Clark reminds us that we should be able to answer the former question in the affirmative. He points out the problems of control and discusses the agencies which have been set up to regulate business, such as the legal instruments of control and the consumer's methods of protecting himself against exploitation.

29. Wiese, Mildred J., and Reticker, Ruth. *The Modern Worker*. New York, Macmillan, 1930.

A wholesome treatment of the worker in normal times as well as in times of labor troubles. Designed for young readers, it is nevertheless a comprehensive and readable introduction for readers of any age.

30. Watkins, Gordon S. *An Introduction to the Study of Labor Problems*. New York, Crowell, 1922.

A comprehensive survey which deals in a competent manner with the varied aspects of labor.

Recent Happenings in the Social Studies

BY COMMITTEE ON CURRENT INFORMATION OF THE NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES

W. G. Kimmel, Chairman

Professor A. C. Krey announces that the first of the reports of the Commission on the Teaching of History in the Schools will appear from the press of Charles Scribner's Sons, entitled *A Charter for the Social Sciences in the Schools*, drafted by Professor Charles A. Beard.

The second volume is entitled *Some Chapters from the History of the Teaching of History* by Henry Johnson. This is a selection of pertinent phases in the development of the school curriculum in this field from earliest times down to the present. It is chiefly concerned with that development outside of the United States and closes with a tabular comparative study of the programs of the history and related subjects in the leading countries of the world. This tabular statement was prepared by Dr. Joseph Strayer of Princeton.

Citizens' Organizations and the Civic Training of Youth by Bessie L. Pierce is the third volume. This presents the programs of the more important organizations outside of

the teaching profession that have concerned themselves with the social education of youth.

With a view to a commemorative publication, Mrs. Claude H. Van Tyne of 1942 Cambridge Road, Ann Arbor, Michigan, desires to obtain from correspondents of her late husband, by way of loan, any letters of his which they may possess. Such letters will be promptly copied and returned.

Edwin H. Reeder, "Social Studies—Or Geography and History?" in *Education*, LII (January, 1932), 258-61, reviews certain materials which throw light on current efforts toward the more integrated development of courses of study. In the setting of the present situation and the different plans for courses of study, the author says, "As a rule enthusiasts for the social studies compare their theories with the worst methods of teaching geography, history, and civics

in the past," presumably as a point of departure for their programs, without at the same time making comparisons of their ideas with the best of current practice. In an attempt to ascertain how subjects have evolved, the statement is made that "A Subject . . . is simply a way of thinking about the complicated affairs of the world; it is a point of view backed by data which will help to analyze a new situation through clarifying and organizing some of its details. Facts as such in many instances are not in themselves peculiar to subjects, but become so through interpretation and organization in various combinations for purposes of interpretation. History involves the consideration of chronology in the development of an understanding and realization of the past in order to make the present intelligible. "The Geographical point of view is non-chronological; on the contrary it deals with the present world and is essentially predictive, speculating on how man can make continuously more effective use of his physical environment." In the further consideration of the resulting differences, the author states that "Relationship . . . in the social studies is not synonymous with identity," that the use to which a fact is put in thinking determines its classification, that the "development of a point of view requires the orderly selection" and arrangement of facts, that a "hopelessly confusing problem" is faced in the selection and arrangement of facts in order to present two divergent points of view, such as are encountered in history and geography.

Other articles in this same number are: Thomas F. Power, "The New Worcester (Mass.) Course in Geography for Junior High Grades," pp. 262-63; Nels A. Bengston, "College Geography," pp. 264-69; Floyd F. Cunningham, "Analysis and Synthesis in Geographic Instruction," pp. 269-73; H. Harrison Russell, "The Preparation of Geography Teachers in Pennsylvania," pp. 277-81; Clyde Edwards Cooper, "Do High Schools Want Trained Teachers of Geography?", pp. 281-83; A. W. Abrams, "Visual Education in New York State Schools," pp. 284-87; DeForest Stull, "A Critical Analysis of Six Geography Texts Printed Before 1850," pp. 288-92; Mendel E. Branom, "The Measurement of Achievement in Geography," pp. 292-96; Erna Grassmuck, "The Work of the Committee on Educational Relations of the National Council of Geography Teachers," pp. 296-99.

Hannah M. Lindahl, in "History in the Intermediate Grades," in the *Elementary School Journal*, XXXII (December, 1931), pp. 257-65, reports certain data from an analysis of 57 courses of study, selected in terms of recency of publication and geographical distribution. Data are assembled in three tables. Only four of the 57 courses are fusion courses; in a large majority of courses, while they are entitled "social science," the materials are outlined in terms of history and geography, with varying degrees of correlation in some courses. The plans of organization in the order of preference mentioned are: topical, unit, biographical, and problem-project. Twenty-nine of the courses do not include statements of objectives, but in courses which provide objectives, they are stated in specific terms. There is a lack of uniformity in the choice and grade placement of subject matter. Approximately one-third of the courses include suggestions for activities, while suggestions for tests are found in a few courses. Extensive bibliographies for teachers and pupils are included in some of the courses.

The December number of *Social Studies Leaflet* (Southern California Social Science Assn.) contains a series of articles which warrant the attention of social-studies teachers. Dr. Ernest Carroll Moore, in "Civic Ideals and Their Achievement" (pp. 1-3), presents a brief sketch of the Ephebian Society, membership in which is open to honor graduates of the 33 Los Angeles high schools, selected "on the basis of character, scholarship, and leadership." Certain comments on Grecian conceptions of education and government are presented, with implications for contemporary society. Ada Mae Reinerton, in "A Modified Form of the Morrison Plan of Study" (pp. 4-6), gives a brief sketch of trends in methods of teaching, and outlines briefly the materials, organization, and procedure in the teaching of the social studies in the

Edison Junior High School, Long Beach. Classrooms are equipped as laboratories; materials are organized in the form of units; mimeographed lists of questions and problems are distributed to pupils, who work in committees, each having a chairman and a librarian. With these modifications, the major phases of the Morrison method are used; the tests are administered after the completion of the recitation, which is concerned mainly with reports of committees. The co-operation of the school librarian and rooms equipped as laboratories with a liberal supply of books and materials are essential to the useful use of the plan.

Robert H. Douglass, "On Teaching the Problems of Social Reform in Senior High Schools," in the same number (pp. 7-8), stresses the need of great care and tact in laying the foundation for the consideration of problems of social reform. Prohibition is a difficult question, and many teachers are said to eliminate the subject from the course. "Sometimes this may appear to be the best way out. Certainly it is preferable to making one's self ridiculous in the minds of students whose opinions on the matter apparently are set." The author recommends the use of the Socratic form of questioning as a basis for later discussion dissolves "a large part of the sarcasm of the students" and usually results in more receptive minds; the instructor likewise saves himself "the possibility of an embarrassing experience." A list of 24 pertinent questions used as a basis for discussion is appended. Mary D. Howell, in "Club Notes" (pp. 12-13), describes the activities of the California State Federation of World Friendship Clubs; the Cosmopolitan Club in the Venice High School, and the Philosophians and Thothians in the Los Angeles High School.

Lulu Albia Brown, in "The Shortened Course in American History," in the same number (p. 14), describes the modifications in content, methods and activities necessitated by the change from a two-semester to a one-semester course in the Manual Arts High School, Los Angeles. Florence Heacock Colby answers the question, "Why a Notebook?" (pp. 14-15), and contributes an outline of materials to be included in notebooks in social-studies classes. Vernon P. Duncan contributes a series of suggestions in "Geography in an Adjustment B7 Class" (pp. 15-16), which developed out of classroom experience in the George Washington High School, Los Angeles. Margaret Gary presents in the form of an outline "A Suggested Lesson Plan in Citizenship Based on the Ephebian Ideals" (pp. 16-17).

George E. Carrothers, in "High-School Curriculum Revisions and Innovations," *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House*, VI (Jan., 1932), pp. 262-70, includes the data for the social studies in public and private high schools in Michigan from the last two quinquennial reports (1924-1925 and 1929-1930) of the North Central Association, reports received from every high school by the State chairman for Michigan (1929-1930), and a report from 600 high schools to the Michigan Schoolmasters' Club. The data for the social studies are summarized in two tables, one for social-studies offerings in 2,226 North Central Association public high schools, the other for Michigan North Central Association high schools. For the North Central Association public high schools, the following subjects show a loss in number of schools offering them—Ancient history (24 per cent), English history (22 per cent), the following subjects show a gain—World history (157 per cent), American problems (112 per cent), Sociology (86 per cent), Community civics (44 per cent), Government (26 per cent), Economics (9 per cent). Similar data for the Michigan North Central Association high schools include the Michigan North Central Association high schools include the following loss in percentages of schools offering different subjects—English history (67.9 per cent), Medieval and Modern history (41.3 per cent), Ancient history (33.5 per cent), American problems (21.9 per cent); the following gains in percentages of schools offering different subjects are—World history (162.9 per cent), Economics (141.3 per cent), Sociology (135.7 per cent), Government (39.2 per cent), Community civics (11.0 per cent), American history (3.5 per cent). In the department enrollments in Michigan North Central Association high schools, the enrollments in the social studies in academic

departments show a gain of 11.4 per cent, along with English representing the largest gain for all subjects; the enrollments in the social studies for all departments show a gain of 5.7 per cent, exceeded by larger gains in the following subjects in the order named—Art, Commercial subjects, and Music. The gain in enrollments in the social studies is slightly greater, with one exception, for public high schools than for private high schools in both Michigan North Central Association and the Non-North Central Association high schools.

The October number of *The High School* (University of Oregon) is devoted to the teaching of the Social Studies. C. E. Rothwell, in "Trends in Social Studies Instruction—1931" (pp. 1-11), presents a discussion and analysis of current developments in objectives, curricular reorganization, methods, and tests and measurements. Current problems in each of these phases of instruction are identified, and the issues are set forth usually in an incisive manner. The different points of view on objectives, with the utilitarian assumptions, limitations, and implications, are briefly outlined:

"Concerning the teaching of attitudes there has been more soft-thinking than hard sense. . . . Until we recognize that intelligent citizenship is of tougher fiber, capable of facing bold facts neither doctored nor adulterated, our attempts to implant attitudes will savor of the hothouse instead of the fearless and critical spirit of the true scientist. It is neither necessary nor desirable to produce youthful rebels. Yet one of the surest ways to do so is to indoctrinate students with platitudes which will not bear the first cold scrutiny of impartiality. A wholesome respect for truth is basic to all other attitudes we may wish to teach."

In the consideration of the social-studies courses, the advantages and limitations of the different subjects are presented. The stated advantages of World history have not been achieved in actual practice; because of the over-crowding and condensation of materials, the effect upon immature pupils is "fact-gorging, lesson-learning, and a deep-seated distaste for history." Certain changes are recommended if the course is to be made teachable. The course in Problems of Democracy is still in the experimental stage, and remains a challenge if it is to prove satisfactory in terms of an adequate synthesis of materials developed experimentally. An analysis of methods, techniques, and plans of organizing materials for teaching purposes is presented, with due consideration to the stated advantages and limitations of each plan. Methods are "means" and "instruments" to be used by teachers who are artists, with proper regard for the needs of individual pupils in terms of desirable objectives. Objective tests, while they have proved useful in the measurement of information gained by pupils, have not yet supplanted the essay examination in the more important outcomes of instruction.

Frances N. Ahl, in "The Unit Plan in American History," in the same number (pp. 12-15), presents essential concepts of the unit plan of organizing materials, a series of ten units, and a "study outline" for one unit. The phases or steps in the Morrison method of instruction are described; the author uses the phrase "unit method," and does not distinguish between the unit concept for guidance in the organization of materials and the series of phases or steps in the Morrison method of instruction. James W. Manning, in "Suggestions for a Reading Program in the Social Sciences" (pp. 27-30), provides a series of suggestions for the selection and use of books as well as for the administering of the reading program in the social studies. Arthur L. Schoeni, in "The Use of Motion Pictures in Social Studies Instruction" (pp. 32-37), outlines findings of studies and investigations and presents suggestions for the successful use of films. A useful and rather extensive list of films is appended. Mildred Hayden, in "The Oregon Social Science Course of Study" (p. 31), describes briefly the main features of the new course of study. J. W. Edwards, in "The Importance of Current Events Instruction in the Social Science Curriculum," cites the need for the arousing of pupils' interest in current world activities and in the development of an interest in current newspapers and periodicals.

F. P. O'Brien and G. E. Watkins, in "Objectives of History Teachers in High Schools of Kansas," *University of Kansas Bulletin of Education*, III (October, 1931), 6-9, reported data submitted by 321 teachers (69 of whom were also principals of high schools), representing 184 school systems. Fifteen objectives, ranging in frequency of mention from 136 to 9, are tabulated. The five objectives ranking highest in the list are rearranged from Table I, as follows:

1. To develop culture and a proper use of leisure	136
2. To create an international good will, tolerance and openmindedness	134
3. To develop an intelligent citizenship	122
4. To give a knowledge of the past, so as to avoid its mistakes	119
5. To give the student a fund of useful information	93

None of the 68 principals who also teach history list No. 4 as an objective, but it is regarded as an objective by 13 per cent of the teachers. None of the principals regard "To show that our institutions are the result of growth, and that development is still taking place" as an objective, but it is checked as an objective by 11 per cent of the women teachers of history. "To develop an understanding of the principle of cause and effect," is not listed by any of the principals. Only 1.9 per cent of the principals regard "To stimulate a desire for historical reading" as an objective.

The Autumn meeting of the Southern California Social Science Association was held at the Woodrow Wilson High School and Junior College. The program is reproduced here through the courtesy of the *Social Studies Leaflet*:

10:00 a.m.—The Group Meetings

The Technique of Supervised Study and the Use of the Library in Supervised Study—John Willard Wilson, Principal Edison Junior High School, Long Beach, California.

The Teaching of California Government—W. W. Mather, Chaffey Junior College, Ontario, California.

Social Studies Curriculum Revision—George A. Homrighausen, George Washington High School, Los Angeles, California.

The Teaching of Economics—Byron N. Scott, Woodrow Wilson High School, Long Beach, California.

Types of Tests—Dr. William J. Klopp, Director of Teaching, Woodrow Wilson High School—Long Beach Junior College.

The Use of Current Events in Teaching Social Studies—Miss Kathleen Harnett, Polytechnic High School, Long Beach, California.

11:30 a.m.—The General Session—Business and Announcements, High School Auditorium.

11:40 a.m.—Address—Dr. William B. Harriman, Superintendent of Charities of Los Angeles County, on The Relief Work Being Done in Los Angeles County.

The Social Science Section of the Los Angeles Teachers' Institute held a series of sessions on December 14-18, 1931. At the morning sessions held in Belasco Theater, Dr. John H. Latane, Johns Hopkins University, presented a series of five lectures on "Present Tendencies in American Foreign Policy." Dr. N. Wing Mah, University of California, gave a series of lectures on China, during the afternoon sessions held in Hollywood High School.

Interest in model League of Nations assemblies is greater than ever this year, according to the Educational Department of the League of Nations Association, 6 East 39th Street, New York City. In the colleges the procedure usually followed involves the gathering of representations of twenty or thirty institutions in an intercollegiate assembly which meets over the weekend, and in which students present original reports and conduct original debates within a framework of League procedure. In the secondary schools, however, the favorite plan is to present what is called a verbatim assembly, that is, one in which extracts from actual Geneva speeches are welded together to form a coherent program, about an hour in length, or even less. These verbatim assemblies seem to be particularly popular this year. Unusually successful assemblies have been given this

winter in the Glens Falls, New York, High School; Theodore Roosevelt High School, Wyandotte, Michigan; and Cumberland, Maryland, High School. Sometimes these assemblies are simply a part of the regular class activities in the social studies; in other instances they are presented before the entire student body, and again, as was the case at Glens Falls, they constitute the offering of the social studies departments in a complete public demonstration of the school. Ten history classes at Glens Falls planned the model assembly given there, and the modern language department helped in arranging the speeches in French and German.

The League of Nations Association will furnish a suggested program for such a verbatim assembly, and the actual League speeches may be secured at a nominal cost.

Edith A. Wright, *Bibliography of Research Studies in Education 1929-1930* (Office of Education Bulletin No. 13, 1931), includes a list of 4,651 titles, many of which are followed by descriptive annotations and brief summaries of findings and conclusions. Titles of studies in the teaching of the studies cover approximately 12 pages. The bulletin may be obtained from the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. Price 85 cents.

Walter S. Monroe, in "Special Methods on High-School Level," *Review of Educational Research*, II (February, 1932), 43-46, reviews briefly 24 studies and investigations dealing with the teaching of the social studies. There is also a bibliography which includes the complete titles of the studies and investigations.

The North Dakota course of study in *Problems of American Democracy* (Bismarck: Department of Public Instruction, 1931. Pp. 162), includes a list of 24 "problems." Each problem is developed in terms of a guidance outline, a list of references, and a series of tests. The book-lists, with very few exceptions, are limited to textbooks in the field. The tests, varying in number from two to three for each problem, are composed of different forms of items, one form for each test. The correct response for each item is given, and, with few exceptions, the exact reference from which the item is compiled is included. The tests are primarily informational in character. There is an introductory statement with a formulation of objectives and the reproduction of a list of suggestions for the handling of controversial questions. Students of the comparative diffusion of culture patterns will be interested in the treatment of "The Liquor Problem."

Louise Irving Capen, *Workbook in Local, State and National Government* (American Book Co., 1931. Pp. vii and 246.), is intended for use with any textbook or series of textbooks and any method of teaching. The materials are organized in terms of 22 units, each of which includes a unit objective presented in one paragraph, a series of selected references, a vocabulary, a series of exercises and charts to be developed by the pupils, a number of proposed projects, and a series of topics for debates entitled "The Open Forum." A test composed of a variety of types of items is provided for each unit. One feature of many units is the series of organization charts and other visual representations of different phases of government. A series of outline maps, a textbook library, and suggestions for guidance in study are provided.

I. O. Foster and Edgar Bruce Wesley, *Workbook in Ancient History* (Macmillan Co., 1931. Pp. ii and 88), is organized primarily in terms of units, each of which contains a series of lists and exercises developed primarily in terms of Hayes and Moon's *Ancient History*, a series of outline exercises mainly of the completion type, and a series of projects. Six outline maps are included. "A Directive Study Test on the Use of the Text," suggestions for guidance of the pupil in study, and a test for each chapter of the textbook are provided. There are no references to other books or materials.

Charles C. Scheck and M. Althea Orton, *Directed History Study: Seventh Grade: A Student's Workbook in History: (The Birth of the Nation, 1763-1865)*, and *Directed History Study: Eighth Grade: A Student's Workbook in History: (World Power and Industrial Democracy, 1865 to the Present)*, have been published as a New York State Edition by World Book Co. These workbooks are similar in form and types of content to earlier publications by the same authors. The materials of each workbook are organized about 12 "unit problems," each of which is subdivided into a varying number of problems. The materials for each "unit problem" include the statements of problems, series of references to textbooks, vocabularies, questions and exercises, and extra assignments. There are forewords for teachers and pupils, series of outline maps, series of textbooks in both workbooks, while the Regents' examinations for the years 1928-1930 are reproduced in the workbook for the eighth grade.

Book Reviews

EDITED BY PROFESSORS HARRY J. CARMAN AND J. BARTLET BREBNER, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

The History of Peace: A Short Account of the Organized Movements For International Peace, By A. C. F. Beales, Lincoln Mac Veagh, The Dial Press, New York, 1931. viii, 355 pp.

Mr. Beales has given to the public an unusually interesting and scholarly account of the efforts of enlightened mankind to bring about the establishment of permanent peace from the earliest times to the creation of the League of Nations.

The author commences this study with a chapter dealing with the philosophical theory of war and peace. This is followed with the historical development of the subject. Brief consideration is given to the various schemes and proposals prior to 1815. The present world peace efforts were born of the horrors of war of the Napoleonic era.

The history of the modern peace movement has been characterized by two forces—pacifism and internationalism. Its general program has had for its goal of attainment "arbitration, arbitration treaties and clauses in treaties, an International authority or Tribunal or Congress, the Codification of International Law, and disarmament".

The author divides the modern peace movement into three periods: the first, 1815-1867. During this period, the first peace societies were established—in Great Britain, the United States, France, and Switzerland. These organizations were dominantly pacifistic in spirit and nature. A second characteristic was that they were "predominantly religious and took their inspiration from the Scripture" (p. 53). By the close of the period, the various societies had accomplished nothing of a constructive nature.

As Mr. Beales shows in the most certain terms, the second period, 1867-1889, was destined to be more fruitful in practical results. New leaders gave new principles and aims to the peace movement. The leadership was made up of men internationally minded. Their proposals received the respectful attention and consideration of statesmen in many countries. Especially noteworthy and interesting is the author's account of the efforts to advance the cause of arbitration, with results not unfavorable. During this period the Inter-Parliamentary Union—that clearing house of peace ideas among interested legislators of various countries—was established.

The third and last period, 1889-1914. This era was one of conflicting forces working for war and peace. As Mr. Beales shows great progress was made in the general cause of peace. He considers at some length some of the agencies set up as well as general accomplishments for the cause. However, the forces of Mars proved the stronger, and as the author laments, made the undertakings of peace a "splendid failure" in the end.

A final chapter of the volume, entitled "Epilogue: Since the War", which the reader would like to see developed into a future volume, deals with the peace efforts and accomplishments since the close of the World War.

Considering Mr. Beale's volume as a whole, it is a remarkable effort in presenting the history of the efforts toward peace. The author has shown that it is possible to make the annals of peace as interesting as those of war. The style of the book is clear and lucid, and every page reflects the author's scholarly understanding of the subject treated. The volume is quite worthy of a place among those comprising the rapidly growing literature on world peace.

LLOYD W. TRUMAN

*Central High School
Bridgeport, Connecticut*

England in the Age of the American Revolution. By L. B. Namier. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1930, viii, 518 pp. \$8.50.

This book was to have been the first section of a larger work to which the two volumes of *The Structure of Politics at the Accession of George III* (Macmillan, 1929), already noticed in these columns (February, 1930), were the prelude. Inasmuch, however, as Mr. Namier has recently devoted his energies to the Jewish Agency for Palestine, he confesses that there is some question as to his continuing the publication of these studies. Under the circumstances it would have been fairest to prospective readers in the years to come had he given this book another title, for with the exception of a quite a remarkable forty page introduction on British society about 1760 his book is devoted exclusively to parliamentary affairs and these only partly in the light of their relation to the American colonies, from the accession of George III in 1760 to the resignation of Newcastle in December, 1762. Of course so erudite a scholar was bound to cast backwards and forwards in time from his short central period, but it would not be unfair to say that Mr. Namier's book is chiefly an exhaustively detailed account of how the parliamentary combination of Newcastle and Pitt broke down when George III came to the throne and gave his complete confidence to Bute.

In reviewing the earlier volumes we commented on Mr. Namier's extraordinary scholarship and it continues to be demonstrated here. He dispels certain historical myths, notably those concerning Cabinet and Party government, with the ease that mastery of the facts ensures. No student of parliamentary and constitutional history can afford to neglect his books and his well-founded, if often novel, generalizations are going to alter the textbooks of the future. Yet a word about his historiography is in order. In the first place, he has been collecting his materials in Great Britain and the United States for about twenty years. He is probably the only person who has worked through the 500 volumes of the Newcastle Papers. He has naturally wanted to print a large quantity of his discoveries and, thanks to assistance from the Rhodes Trustees and an anonymous friend, he has escaped many of the limitations of commercial book production. The result is that his books are quite out of the ordinary in the proportion of evidence to conclusions and to the amount of ground covered. No other historian has given 500 pages to less than two years of parliamentary history and not many readers will want to give that much time to even such conclusive scholarship as Mr. Namier's. His books seem certain to become books of reference for specialists and occasional useful correctives for slip-shod scholars. He is unquestionably an authority and he can write with a brisk and attractive rhythm, but the overwhelming majority of his pages consists of a stiff porridge of quotation, footnotes and baldly-presented evidence.

It is a surprise and a pleasure to come upon his scattered wise philosophizing or upon such odd nuggets as the combination of the names of two eighteenth century British demagogues in Wilkes-Barre, Pennsylvania, but most of the road is sober, even monotonous going.

The chief topics whose elucidation here commands attention are: the analysis of what the unreformed House of Commons represented; the position of the Crown in politics; what the Opposition really amounted to; the stigma on a Prime Minister, and the limitations on a parliamentary manager like Newcastle when the King gave his confidence elsewhere; the unreality of party government before the Younger Pitt; the unrevolutionary constitutional ideas of George III; new light on the Canada vs. Guadalupe controversy after the Seven Years' War; and interesting suggestions as to the effect of the incipient industrial revolution in making even the mercantile group apathetic about the cause of the American colonies. The main theme is the ease (and confusion) with which George III's succession to his grandfather completely disrupted the personal parliamentary system elaborated by the timorous but indefatigable Duke of Newcastle. Mr. Namier's next book, if ever written, will be on "The Rise of Party."—B.

The Black Death and Men of Learning. By Anna M. Campbell. Columbia University Press, New York, 1931, xii, 210 pp. \$3.00.

This first volume of the *History of Science Society Publications* is a work which combines exact and tentative scholarship in reassuring proportions. General historians have been accustomed in the past to make fairly sweeping statements about the effects of the bubonic plagues of the mid-fourteenth century. Professor Campbell set out to test those which had been applied to men of learning and she found corroboration for most of them. Yet her scholarship is sturdy enough to justify her in differing with so well-known an authority as Duhem and of course she has done her part in dispelling some myths (notably in relation to medicine, human dissection and sanitation) which are still able to hold up their heads in textbooks and encyclopaedias.

It could be said that Miss Campbell's matter is better than her manner. Of course an analysis of sixteen tractates on the plague, such as is contained in Chapter 3, is bound to be arbitrary, but in other parts of the book there is considerable unevenness in presentation, with definite improvement towards the end. About half of the book is given to the plague and to the contents of the sixteen tractates, in terms chiefly of their authors' ideas on causes (astronomical conjunctions, corruption of the air, infection and predisposition), the symptoms of both kinds of the disease, prophylaxis, treatment and cures. The rest of the book discusses the effects of the plague on medicine, surgery, and hygiene; and on mathematical and physical science, political theory, law, the church and education. This research proved most fruitful in the medical and educational fields.

It is important to have such a study corroborate past estimates of mortality owing to the Black Death. The deaths of obscure men were seldom recorded in forms which would justify assured statistical conclusions. Dr. Campbell has found that deaths among good samples of the learned professions and high dignitaries of church and state approximate 35 per cent, which she believes would "support the estimate of one-half more nearly than that of one-fourth as the population loss sustained by Europe." She finds that, with the exception of the church, the shocking loss of learned men brought about a strong determination to redress the balance, so that the profession of medicine increased in remunerativeness and esteem, new colleges and universities were established and university privileges were extended, and the use of vernaculars increased in the field of learning. The shadow of death had its effects on men's minds also and seems to bear a relation to subsequent movements of mysticism, reform and puritanism in the field of religion. Inasmuch as the evidence and argument for the conclusions are incorporated in the text, the reader may use his own judgment as to the degree of validity he may give in using them for general statements.—B.

The Voyageur. By Grace Lee Nute. D. Appleton & Co., New York, 1931. ix. 299 pp. With wood-cut illustrations and end-paper maps. \$3.00.

The authoress of this book has enjoyed all the advantages of a romantic and interesting subject which has not been systematically examined before. So far as the period from the end of the eighteenth to the middle of the nineteenth century is concerned, she has gathered together and categorized a singularly comprehensive and illustrative body of materials. As a result she has been able to draw a living portrait of the nineteenth century *voyageur* in Canada and the United States, which ranges from his activities in canoe, on the trail, or in the fort to the days when he settled down with wife and children at some one of the cross-roads of the frontier to alternate a little crude farming with the buffalo hunt and the fur brigades.

In the case of a pioneer book probably one ought not to complain of partial treatment. Yet intending readers should be reminded that the *voyageurs* began their work in the first quarter of the seventeenth century in the persons of the young men whom Champlain and the fur traders sent to live with the Indians, and that thereafter their successors built up the characteristics described in this book during the course of expeditions which ranged from New Mexico and South Carolina to James Bay and the foothills of the Rockies of the north-west. Their genesis and specialization as a class are not dealt with here. One good reason is that their intending recorder must go behind the printed records and work his way through hundreds of volumes of manuscript sources.

The authoress has succeeded remarkably well in making the past speak for itself and abundant quotation is justified by the recapture of a past flavor of life. She has drawn together an excellent group of *voyageur* songs (with tunes) from the collections of Gagnon, Barbeau and Sapir, LaRue and others, and has provided them with her own or Murray

Gibbon's English paraphrases. The wood-cuts of Carl W. Bertsch are a nice compromise between romance and accuracy. In all there is much to praise and an immense amount of illustrative detail has been woven into a firm fabric.

Students of the North American activities which are discussed in this book will find some room for criticism. For instance, evidence drawn from particular times and places is sometimes unwarrantably used for generalizations, indeed more notice of time and place would often have helped the narrative and prevented apparent contradiction. An example (pp. 45 and 71), concerns the method of portaging a canoe. Again the authoress does not seem to have enjoyed complete command of Canadian French, nor to have been as careful as she might in her use of Innis's closely-written *Fur Trade in Canada*. Paddles (instead of blades) two feet long and apparently universally of red-cedar strike a strange note on p. 26, as does the absence of floor slats or poles in the canoes (p. 31); it is not made clear that what is translated as "portage-collar" on p. 47 could not have been in any sense a collar without strangling the *voyageur* (the illustrator corrects this); "hominy" is a more familiar name than "lyed corn"; there is no reason why Indians instead of *voyageurs* should not have made the portage route which Radisson found (p. 63); and even the inexpert reader will suspect that sledge-dogs boarded out all summer at two dollars each a day represent an economic absurdity (p. 93). Only a student of the northwest will be able to know where some of the places here mentioned were, for the map is not all-inclusive and its names are French where English is often used in the text. The Methye Portage, for instance, is twice mentioned and the index adds in parenthesis "La Roche," whereas the map quite rightly shows "Portage la Loche." It is very difficult for a writer steeped in the subject to make all clear to uninitiate readers, but greater pains would have added lucidity to this book.—B.

Exercises Tests

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GINN AND COMPANY

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They That Take the Sword. By Esmé Wingfield-Stratford. William Morrow and Company, New York, 1931, xiv, 424 pp. \$4.00.

This is a volume for which many people have been searching,—a careful and readable analysis of war and peace throughout human history. Of the scholarly capabilities of Mr. Wingfield-Stratford, known to many readers as the author of a brilliant *History of British Civilization* and of a penetrating study of the Victorian age, few of the well-informed have the slightest doubt. Graduate of Cambridge and of the London School of Economics, he has produced, in the last two decades, two novels and a number of poetical works. For the present volume, he brings even more specific qualifications: son of a British general, brother of a major in the British forces in the last War and himself a captain in a Kentish regiment.

It is quite evident to the reader of this important book, that Captain Wingfield-Stratford has made ample use of his military background, of the apparatus of careful scholarship and of the training in style and expression which successful writing gives. These points are to be kept well in mind as one realizes that the book is one of pronounced pacifism. To the author war is a disease of increasing malignancy which may well engulf civilization in the not-distant future. As man's command over nature has increased with the years, his power of destruction has increased also, and just as his intricate and delicate social and economic organization has moved on, so has his relative helplessness when a retarding occurs in the complex machinery which his ingenuity has devised.

In constructing his picture of man, veering backward and forward 'twixt love and hate, the author ridicules the idea of a primitive man of warlike proclivities, and pronounces the duel and the blood feud as nuisances rather easily mastered by the civilized peoples of the world, instead of being deeply-rooted survivals of primitive traits. Only the racial and national aspects of the feud have, up to the present, defied extinction. He treats Egyptian civilization as one proving the lack of connection between human achievement and war, and communities like Assyria, Sparta and Prussia as completely militarized, leaving nothing for the culture or genius of the people to feed upon. War he views as a "capitalized industry" (p. x) of mechanical devices plus wealth, its activity directed largely against the civilian population. In the final chapters he deals with this "military revolution," its culmination during 1914-1919, the post-war period and the future of civilization.

A very interesting portion of the volume is that in which an attempt is made to show how the increasing interrelationships of modern life and the vastly increased power for destruction, even since 1919, would probably act to exterminate society in a possible war. He supposes that two great Latin rivals,—France and Italy, go to war, and that the other great powers allow them to fight it out. The armies would quickly stalemate each other on the short mountain frontier between the two countries, after digging themselves in,—a condition broken only by short offensives demanded by the governments above, and amounting to pure massacres. The Mediterranean would quickly become a no-man's sea, closed to all peaceful commerce, and swarming with opposing airplanes and submarines. The French, prevented probably by incomplete command of the Sea by the events of the war, from using their African troops in Europe, would use them instead to conquer Italian Libya. Meanwhile the real war would be visited upon the helpless civilian French and Italians behind the useless deadlocked armies by means of vast bombing planes of great range and speed, and many of the finest of European cities would probably be laid in ashes. Italy, discouraged at the failures of Fascism, might turn to bolshevism; the French financial stability would disappear in thin air; and a revived Germany would prepare a new reckoning with exhausted France.

But, the author continues, no such small peaceful war would be allowed by the great powers. In Europe the Hungarians and Bulgars would fall joyfully upon the Little Entente, Germany and her Austrian friends would take the occasion to rewrite the Peace Treaty by force, and Russia

would doubtless resume her long-delayed reckoning with capitalist society. In the Far East, in Africa and in the Pacific the oppressed peoples would rise and shake off European imperialism. Only the relentless shedding of truth upon war and its hideousness, the vitalizing of the League of Nations and the spiritual revolutionizing of mankind can avail to save the world from this dire calamity.

Such, in brief, is the grave and threatening picture which the author deals out, backing it by a wealth of illustration from historic man's career, and framing the argument in vigorous English style which commands our admiration. It may be that the picture is overdrawn. Assyriologists and students of German civilization would hardly agree with the author's phrase applied to those countries,—"completely militarized," nor does it seem quite fair to flatly treat the soldier's mind as primitive. Many of them have exceedingly able, intelligent and fine in character, though it may be that their excellent qualities were misapplied. It seems a bit extreme, too, to summarize Napoleon's success as due to his glorious opportunity, the stupidity of his opponents and his bold gambler-like recklessness (pp. 225-232).

But the work cannot be condemned fairly, even though the eminent British scholar sometimes displays too great pique at the military. He has drawn for us a skillful and convincing conception of the historic evolution of war and has done it—in such a way as to make us pleased that at last the peace movement has enlisted the attention of first-rate minds.

Adelphi College

COURTNEY R. HALL

Modern Europe and the World. By Ralph Flenley, University of Toronto, Toronto: J. M. Dent and Sons, Ltd., 1931. xvi, 567 pp.

Professor Flenley's work comes as a response to a demand for a Canadian-written European history for use in secondary schools in Ontario, and perhaps elsewhere in Canada. Until recently, a work by Robinson and Beard has been in use there, but, partly because of the American origin of the authors, it has been discounted. Accordingly, a review of *Modern Europe and the World* must needs consider these facts as well as the intrinsic value of the book itself.

The book possesses many desirable features. In the first place, it has a theme, namely the development of order out of chaos, the formation of a Europe, united (in theory at least) by the League of Nations, out of a Europe divided "in the most haphazard way" in the middle of the eighteenth century. Beginning with the growth of modern European and world history out of the French Revolutionary era (Book I), there follow, in Book II, a consideration of the various European countries in the nineteenth century, in Book III an analysis of imperialism, the alliances, and the coming of the World War, and finally (Book IV) the war itself, the peace, and the events developing out of them. The illustrations are well-chosen, there are useful sections on "cultural" history, and an interesting chapter on the United States in the nineteenth century broadens the view for Canadian students.

Like most books, however, Professor Flenley's volume has its faults as well as its merits. The maps, unfortunately, are placed at the back of the book, where they may be overlooked by the student, and the text is not easy reading for a beginner. There is no introduction as to what has gone before, and the students, with no previous training in European history, are flung at once into the details of the partitioning of Poland. In fact, especially since he was writing for high school pupils, Professor Flenley might have profited from a remark once made, I believe, by one of his colleagues, to the effect that what students want is "the romance of history, and not a lot of dry charters."

So much for the content of the book itself, what of its relation to its predecessor? This involves a dual problem, namely the respective merits of the two books, and a consideration of the demand for a history by a Canadian in preference to one by American historians. The Canadian work is more recent, and should profit from the latest historical research, especially in the period since 1900. It also has the illuminating chapter on the United States. But

the American book is more easily read, and gives the reader a clear introduction to European history; though it lacks a "theme." As for illustrations and arrangements, there is little choice between the two works. The matter of the writers' origin, on the other hand, is of greater significance. Professor Flenley gives more space to the United States than do Robinson and Beard. Again, he does not display Great Britain as an imperialistic "benefactor," and his treatment of the origins of the World War, the part played by the United States and Canada in the war, and the work of the peace conference is discreetly objective. And, to cite a last example, his impartial consideration of such a force as Bolshevism does him credit. His work shows none of the flamboyant nationalism expected, perhaps, by those awaiting the appearance of the work. But doubtless this is because Professor Flenley is a Britisher by birth, and a Canadian only by adoption.

A final point of interest in Professor Flenley's book is that, when contrasted with some of its contemporaries in the United States, it reveals much of Ontario's educational policy. Compare, for example, a few chapter headings from the Canadian book with some from a recent text written by a leading American historian, and fast becoming popular. Where Canadian students learn about "France Before the Revolution" and "The French Revolution, 1789-1799," American students may study "The French People in the Eighteenth Century; How the Few Lived Well without Working, and How the Many Worked without Living Well," "How the Revolution Was Accomplished in Men's Minds Before They Made it the Work of Their Hands," and "How the French People Started Out to Make a Small Revolution and Ended by Making a Great One." Again, while Canadian students are concerning themselves with "The Industrial Revolution in Great Britain, 1750-1850," their neighbours may be reading about the "The Industrial Revolution: How Science Gave Men Machines to Work for Them, and How the Machines Changed the Conditions under Which Men Had to Live and Labor." Ontario boys and girls may ponder over "The International Relations of the Great Powers of Europe, 1870-1914; the Coming of the War of 1914-18," when their fellows to the south are studying "Alliances and Armaments: How the Great Powers Prepared for War in Time of Peace, and How the War Came because the Great Powers Were so Well Prepared for It." And, finally, when Canadians are dealing with recent events as "Issues and Problems After the War," Usanians, as I have heard them called for short, will be thinking of "The New World of Today, Which is Only the Old World of Yesterday Trying to Gets Its Bearings." But perhaps history should not be a thing of simplicity.

One thing Professor Flenley's work *will* do. It will satisfy the local desire for a time, that is, until some of the critics realize that perhaps the writer is not a propagandist. As to whether it was the best choice for the place it is to fill, only time will tell.

JOHN HALL STEWART

Western Reserve University

The March of Civilization: Modern World, 1453-1931. By Jesse E. Wrench. New York, Charles Scribner's Sons. 1931. Pp. XVII, 486. \$2.00.

Professor Wrench's volume has a most attractive format, consisting of a dark red, leather-like binding, stamped in gold. It contains twenty-four maps, six of which are in colors, and 220 illustrations. Many of the illustrations are unique and their legends are clarified by accompanying explanations and comments; consequently it is unfortunate that the names of maps and illustrations were placed in a composite list, for such an arrangement tends to defeat the very purpose of such lists. Aids for teachers and pupils—"Problems and Practice Exercises" and "Bibliography"—cover a total of about twenty-eight pages. Approximately half of the book is devoted to the period since 1815.

This text has several commendable features. The index shows where to find places on a map. The pronunciation of new words is indicated right in the text where the word first occurs. Some of the maps, notably the one on page

466 and 467, serve as the basis for purposive activity on the part of the pupil. The uncrowded pages, the excellent and varied illustrations, and the high quality of the paper tend to make it one of the most appealing of books.

On the other hand one may be inclined to raise some questions. On page 181 ten names are introduced within fifteen lines. One part of a sentence reads, "In physics, Boyle, with the aid of an air-pump, discovered Boyle's law, . . ." Will the pupil be able to draw sustenance from such passages? In the "Foreword" (page 357) occurs this topic sentence, "Stirred by economic competition, nationalism became imperialistic." Consider a longer illustration from page 286. "An outbreak of the mob occurred in Paris in February, 1848. Louis abdicated and fled to England. While the provinces were once more receiving a "revolution by post," the liberal faction of the *bourgeoisie* proclaimed a republic on the west side of Paris while the Socialists proclaimed another on the east side." The pupil is likely to ask why Louis abdicated? Why did he flee to *England*? What is a revolution by post? What does one mean by a liberal faction? Why did the bourgeoisie choose the *west* side and the Socialists the *east* side? It is doubtful if the passage furnishes answers to these questions. It is apparent that the cause of these overly concentrated passages is traceable to the attempt to reduce the size of the book; so it is probable that the author was not wholly free to treat topics with the fullness which may be desirable in an introductory text.

Chapter XI on Turkey is a commendable innovation and Chapters XVI and XVII, dealing with England, are excellent. The last two chapters dealing with social developments and the unsolved problems which confront us are well designed to further the pupil's interest in his future study.

EDGAR B. WESLEY

University of Minnesota

Henry Dundas, First Viscount Melville, 1742-1811. By Holden Turber. Oxford University Press, New York, 1931. xi, 331 pp. \$5.00.

The history of polities has generally suffered from two outstanding deficiencies. The first has been the concern with externals, which has led to a divorce of theory and practice; the second has been the tendency to touch realities only with vague generalizations, accurate enough so far as they went but valueless for a real grasp of a concrete situation. It is likely that a chief reason for these deficiencies has been sheer ignorance caused by the lack of individual case studies. Eighteenth century England offers an excellent example. For years we have had to be satisfied first with reverential descriptions of the *form* of government, with their nice apportionment of space to the various branches, and second with deprecatory references to the existing mountainous corruption, no effort being made to integrate either the form with the practice or the relation between social evolution and political organization. Recent years, it is true, have brought the beginnings of a more realistic approach, notably in the books of L. B. Namier. In this tendency, Mr. Furber's book has a valued place, for he has given us a picture of an influential politician and a master "corruptionist," with some excellent chapters on the actual "management" of Dundas' private preserve, Scotland.

Henry Dundas, "political manager of Scotland, statesman, and administrator of British India," became a member of parliament and Lord Advocate of Scotland in 1774. Well favored by native ability, by ancestry, and by marriage, he readily impressed important Englishmen as a man to watch. Even John Wilkes, scarcely a friend, praised his speeches as containing "much sound sense and no rubbish." Coupled with his abilities was his steadily increasing power in Scotland where, though he soon lost his Lord Advocateship, he became "Harry the Ninth, uncrowned King of Scotland." Not less important, moreover, was his willingness to submit to official routine. By sheer hard work he made himself the best informed man in England on Indian affairs at a time when such people were hardly less necessary than now. Pitt's India Bill had just passed and the problems of set-

tling Indian administration and finance were at their most confusing stage. His interest continued throughout his whole political life and Mr. Furber thinks it probable that he spent more time on Indian affairs than on anything else in his long career.

Although many men would have been content to manage Scotland and India, such was not the case with Dundas. Western Europe was a critical place in 1790 and when Dundas became Home Secretary in 1791 his chief function was to suppress the revolutionary spirit and reform societies in the British Isles. This he did with vigor and success, by fair means and foul, by statute and by spies. With the outbreak of war in 1793, he added the war ministry to his already numerous responsibilities. In this capacity he did not cover himself with glory; mismanagement for which he was largely chargeable wasted British efforts in a dozen places when one concentrated drive might have ended the war. Nevertheless, he did see to it that British interests in the outlying parts of the world were not sacrificed, and his naval policy has received the approval of so considerable an authority as Corbett. In 1801 Dundas went out with Pitt's ministry and for the following three years he was a politician without office, though he retained contact with public affairs by accepting a peerage in 1802. In 1804, however, he became head of the admiralty, only to resign in 1805 after being impeached for lax administration of the navy. Acquitted in 1806, he retired to Scotland where he remained a power until his death.

The value of the book is greatly enhanced by some excellent maps illustrating the growth and decline of the Dundas power in Scotland. There is also a good bibliography which might have been improved, however, by the inclusion of some books on India treating the period of the Dundas interest.

CHARLES F. MULLETT

University of Missouri

Beyond the Sublime Porte. By Barnette Miller. Yale University Press, New Haven, 1931. XIX, 281 pp. \$5.00.

To both the tourist and the resident of the city, Constantinople offers few monuments more calculated to pique, without satisfying, the curiosity than the oldest of the existing Turkish palaces, Top Kapu Seray. The palace is now a museum, but as the Turkish Republic has successively opened section after section to visitors, the puzzle has only grown; for to see is not to understand this maze of courts, chambers, and corridors, built to house a unique community which has now passed away. Too much credit can hardly be given Dr. Miller for the rare energy, scholarship, and perseverance with which she has unraveled its secrets. As the first comprehensive study in any language of the palace, its origin, the development and modification of its plan, the vicissitudes in the history of the building itself and its inhabitants, and the rules and customs governing the relations of all these different groups of people to each other and the world, the subject bristled with difficulties. These have been largely surmounted by the author as concerns the gathering of material, though perhaps not quite so successfully in its organization.

The book is well illustrated, both with pictures and with carefully numbered plans. Other aids include bibliographical and explanatory notes, covering twenty-nine pages in the back of the book, a glossary of the Turkish words occurring in the text, a chronological list of the Turkish sultans, a full bibliography, and a satisfactory index. The body of the book is divided into two parts, in each of which the whole palace area is surveyed, the idea being, apparently, to trace the historical development of the building and its institutions first, and then to describe each section of the palace and its people. This necessitates a good deal of repetition which is somewhat confusing. The rendering of Turkish words is also open to criticism. At the time the study was made, some such arbitrary system of transliteration was necessary, but since the Turks more than three years ago discarded the Arabic in favor of a Latin alphabet, it is unfortunate that it was not found possible to adopt the standardized spelling before the book went to press.

Even though Dr. Miller may disappoint the reader by giving no very clear idea of life in the royal harem, her chapter on the Palace School will prove of great interest, and cause him to look forward to the monograph which she promises on that subject. The Ottoman system of education for a governing class is one which has scarcely been noticed in the west outside the pages of Professor Lybyer's study of Ottoman government in the age of Suleyman, but it is one which is of such significance that it should be familiar to everyone interested in the history of education. To those whose curiosity is whetted by the mysterious, the chapter on the Pavilion of the Holy Mantle will have a special appeal, since that section of the palace is still forbidden ground and guards and local guides are very reticent on the subject of its contents and ceremonies.

While this book contains many charming passages and much information of wide interest, the reader should not be misled by the popular title to expect a couple hours of light reading. Its contribution is more valuable than that. Until Top Kapu Seray was abandoned by the sultans in the 19th century, the heart of the Ottoman Empire was here. He who would understand the zenith and decline of the Ottoman system would do well to illuminate his knowledge by a careful study of the anatomy of the sultan's household as it is laid before him in these pages.

MARGARET WILLIS

*The Bennett School
Millbrook, N.Y.*

King Charles II. By Arthur Bryant. Longmans, Green & Co., New York, 1931. xi, 448 pp. \$3.50.

Because of his amatory extravagances and the loose morals of his court, Charles II has usually elicited from historians either scandalous chronicles or harsh diatribes. A few dispassionate recorders have made it clear that no mere pleasure-lover could have preserved British monarchy against the assaults of Shaftesbury and the Republicans or have raised England to something like naval and marine pre-eminence in Europe, but none of them except perhaps Mr. Keith Feiling has devoted himself closely to analysis of what Charles II's problems were and to what qualities and conceptions he used to solve them. For these reasons Mr. Bryant's book is exceptionally welcome. It is based upon broad scholarship, is equipped with a novel and usually successful apparatus of corroboration, and it is centered in Charles Stuart and the three kingdoms which from 1660 to 1685 were so nearly impossible to rule.

Mr. Bryant owes much of his success in commanding Charles II to his readers to his neat device of committing them almost imperceptibly to two assumptions which in the end convert Charles II into a hero. The first of these is that there is no profit in deplored Charles's generous affections where beautiful or witty women were concerned because he made no concealment of them himself and was in addition a devoted and loyal husband to his Portuguese queen, even when she could not irritate his mistresses in presenting him with children. The second assumption is that Charles was no less loyal an English king for having been a pensioner of Louis XIV during most of his reign, because he gave Louis distinctly less than he got and anyway the English people were not yet educated up to taxing themselves sufficiently to maintain the domestic régime and international position which they coveted. It is obvious that these are considerable concessions and both of them could be objected to in a number of aspects.

Yet Mr. Bryant is not a mere "stunt" biographer who has played up the merits of Charles in order to reap profit from upsetting a broadly accepted convention of disrepute. He has used practically all the printed materials available (their titles require ten pages of small print) and he has made himself really familiar with Court and Council and country gentry, although as much cannot be said for Lords and Commons and boroughs, and his references to Ireland and Scotland are little more than allusions. He makes Charles and the company at Whitehall come to life, and he scatters enough examples of contemporary coarseness and brutality across his pages to enable the imaginative reader

to supply the occasionally necessary correction for impressions of gentleness and magnanimity. Charles's reign was brutal in ways we are too apt to forget and Charles himself was not always forgiving.

The book is a veritable plum-pudding of court history, in fact the interjection of illustrative material occasionally clutters up the chronicle. It is avowedly a chronicle and it makes interesting reading. Its literary style is a little inflated for a book from which Professor Notestein eliminated 40,000 words, in the rococo instead of the cooler classical tradition, as it were. Yet in all it will serve the relatively ignorant reader quite well and the better-read will probably profit enough from the fresh materials which it contains to counter-balance objections and qualifications. B.

Annals of the New York Stage. By George C. D. Odell. Columbia University Press, New York, 1927-1931. Seven volumes. Vol. I (To 1798), xiii, 496 pp.; Vol. II (1798-1821), viii, 643 pp.; Vol. III (1821-1834), xii, 747 pp.; Vol. IV (1831-1843), xii, 757 pp.; Vol. V (1843-1850), xiii, 655 pp.; Vol. VI (1850-1857), xiii, 676 pp.; Vol. VII (1857-1865), xv, 793 pp.

This monumental work not yet complete, grew, its author tells us, out of his great love and devotion for the theater. Be that as it may these volumes are veritable mines of social economic and cultural history of the City of New York in so far as a most detailed account of the theatre reflects such history.

Others before Professor Odell have dealt with the history of the New York stage. William Dunlap and George O. Seilhamer, for example, traced the story of the drama not only for New York but for so much of the United States as had by 1810 and 1797 respectively any dramatic history worth relating. Joseph N. Ireland, limiting his investigations to New York, carries the story to 1860 and T. Allston Brown brings it down to the end of the nineteenth century. Mr. Arthur Hornblow's valuable work, *A History of the Theatre in America*, covers the entire country and conse-

quently the space devoted to New York is very limited.

But all these authors with the possible exception of Dunlap do little more than record theatrical events. Social and economic conditions amid which the theatre was established and fostered are neglected. Even the changes in taste and style that modified so powerfully playing and playgoing are only casually treated. In other words one searches their accounts in vain for the all-important background so necessary for a complete understanding and appreciation of the subject matter with which they deal. It is just here that Professor Odell's admirable chronicle excels. The Diary of Philip Hone, for example, in which the Panic of 1837 and its effect on life in the metropolis of the Western World are discussed at length, finds space in Professor Odell's pages. So does Niklo's museum, the circus, the birth of negro minstrelsy and a host of other items which reflect the social and cultural atmosphere of the city.

As far as the theatre itself is concerned these volumes are encyclopaedic. In fact their pages are literally bursting with data relative to plays, playhouses, players, programs and profits. Indeed, some may complain and justly so, that the mass of detail is smothering. Certainly no one can claim that the author has failed to include important aspects of the city's dramatic history for so exhaustive is his treatment that this task will never need to be done again.

For material Professor Odell has depended almost entirely upon contemporary newspapers, diaries, letters, autobiographies, magazines, playbills and account-books. The hundreds of illustrations which illumine the pages of these volumes are views of interiors and exteriors of theatres, portraits of actors and actresses and scenes from plays. Nearly all of them are from Professor Odell's own collection gathered over a lifetime. The work as a whole is observational rather than interpretative. Copious quotations abound throughout. The style is vivacious and at times almost colloquially intimate. The type, paper and format are all that could be desired and each volume is carefully indexed. For the student these volumes constitute a valuable reference.—C.

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Book Notes

Every resident of the City of New York and citizens the country over have reason to be proud of the unique little booklet entitled *The New Yorkers Bicentennial Guide* the text of which was prepared by the students of the Civics Department and the illustrations and format by the students of the Art Department of the Washington Irving High School, 40 Irving Place, New York City. Written in celebration of the two hundredth anniversary of the birth of the Father of our Country it is, as the title implies, a guide to the points of interest in and about New York City which are associated with Washington. Pearl Street, Frances Tavern, Federal Hall, St. Paul's Church, the John Street Theatre, the Broadway White House, the Citizens Saving Bank, the Battles of Long Island and Harlem Heights, Juvenal Mansion, the Van Cortland House, Old City Hall, the New York Historical Society, the Metropolitan Museum of Art, the New York Public Library, the Museum of the City of New York, White Plains and Newburgh, New York, and Morristown, New Jersey, under the heading "New York City Remembers" are the names of the streets, monuments and other memorials which help to keep the memory of Washington alive. Over eight hundred girls helped prepare this chapter. Grown-ups could hardly improve upon the format and illustrations. Instruction of this character cannot be too highly commended. Certainly this booklet furnishes an admirable model of what can be done in the teaching of local history.

Thora Thorsmark's *George Washington* (Scott, Foresman and Company, Chicago and New York, 1931, 293 pp.) is one of many memorial volumes that will in all probability appear during the year 1932, the bicentennial of Washington's birth. It is a very readable story nearly all of which however, is a mosaic of laudatory quotations from earlier writers, unacknowledged by footnote references. It contains nothing new either in the way of fact or interpretation. In other words it is merely another book on Washington.

Professor Lorenzo Dow Turner's *Anti-Slavery Sentiment in American Literature Prior to 1865* (The Association for the Study of Negro Life and History, Inc., Washington, D.C., 1929, VIII, 188 pp.) had its inception as a doctoral dissertation in the graduate school of the University of Chicago. It attempts, and successfully so, to discover the extent to which anti-slavery sentiment found expression in American literature prior to 1865, to trace the growth of this sentiment, to ascertain its nature, and to indicate the extent to which it was influenced by the spirit of the time. The author arranges his material both topically and chronologically on the basis of definite stages of development: The Anti-Slavery Movement Prior to the Abolition of the African Slave-Trade (1641-1808), The Transition Period (1808-1831), The First Period of Militant Abolitionism (1831-1850), The Second Period of Militant Abolitionism (1850-1861), The Civil War Period (1861-1865). The volume contains an excellent bibliography.

The Correspondence of General Thomas Gage With the Secretaries of State 1763-1775 Vol. I (Yale University Press, New Haven, 1931, XII, 455 pp.) compiled and edited by Professor Clarence Edwin Carter of Miami University is one of the numerous volumes being published under the direction of the Yale University Department of History. The volume is especially valuable to those who are interested in British colonial policy at the time of the American Revolution for the correspondence reveals a very significant trend towards the unification of British colonial administration during these eventful years. The correspondences shows further a growing tendency of the British government to rely upon General Gage for information and advice on all manner of questions including status of American commerce and industry, colonial discontent, taxation, quit-rents, Indians, western expansion, founding of new colonies, defense, colonial governments, relations with France and Spain

and the treatment of alien subjects. The usefulness of the volume is enhanced by an excellent index.

Anita Libman Lebeson's volume, *Jewish Pioneers in America 1492-1848* (Brentano's, New York, 1931, 372 pp.) partially fills a gap of long standing in American historiography. Based in large measure on the Graetz and Etting papers and upon the *Publications* of the American Jewish Historical Society, it covers a wide sweep. After three chapters of Old World background Mrs. Lebeson indicates the extent to which the Jews played a rôle in the civilization of colonial America. One chapter is devoted to the Jews in the War of the Revolution and four to the period between 1789 and 1848. In many respects the picture here depicted is not different from that of other peoples who, persecuted in the Old World, made their way to the New. Some may complain that the author in her desire to make her story lively does not always knit her materials quite as closely as she might. An excellent bibliography and voluminous notes indicate the scope of her researches.

Every student of American social and economic history is under obligation to Professor Charles Henry Ambler for his excellent volume entitled *A History of Transportation in the Ohio Valley* (The Arthur H. Clark Company, Glendale, California, 1932, 465 pp.) Bearing the sub-title "with special reference to its waterways, trade, and commerce from the earliest period to the present time" this volume furnishes excellent portrayals of shipbuilding on the inland waters, the first steamboats, intermunicipal rivalries, the competition of waterways and railways, the coal trade, internal improvements and the decadence of river traffic and its revival in recent years. The chapter entitled "Life and Customs" furnishes an admirable picture of the rollicking river life. Here we get more than a glimpse of the traveling public, the professional gambler, pleasure parties, shippers and others. Professor Ambler has leaned heavily on public documents and local newspapers for material. He has also garnered many tales from old rivermen. Despite the liberal use of footnote references a bibliographical statement would help the busy student and reader.

Theodore M. Whitfield's monographic study, *Slavery Agitation in Virginia 1829-1832* (The Johns Hopkins Press, Baltimore, 1930, VIII, 162 pp.) awarded the Mrs. Simon Baruch University prize for 1929 traces the changing attitude of Virginia towards slavery between 1619 and 1835. Most of the volume is devoted to the reasons for the change in feeling from anti-slavery to slavery during the eventful years 1829-1835. He proves conclusively that the anti-slavery forces suffered disastrous defeat in the famous House of Delegates debate 1831-32, largely because the slavery interest was in control. This monograph constitutes a valuable addition to the literature of the slavery controversy.

Correspondence

We record the following correspondence relating to a recent review:

Dr. Michael Kraus
College of the City of New York
New York, N.Y.

DEAR DR. KRAUS: I have read in THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK for February your review of my book, *A History of Colonial America*. As I do not consider your review a fair appraisal of the work, I am writing to answer some of your criticisms.

In the limited space allotted for this reply I shall confine myself to the following statements made by you, though they do not, in my opinion, cover all the unjust criticisms given in your review. For while I am willing to admit that some of your adverse comment is in the nature of an appraisal most of it has degenerated into meticulous fault finding.

1. "There is too much dependence on the volumes of Wertebaker and Adams in the *History of American Life* series, which may account for the paucity of Professor Chittwood's social material after 1763, the closing period of

Adams' (sic) 'Provincial Society.'" The period after 1763 is covered by five chapters (103 pp.). Of these, one chapter (24 pp.)—nearly one-fourth of the entire space—is devoted to the Social Aspects of the Revolution, including government. Do you know of any one-volume work on colonial history that includes a fuller treatment of the life of the people in this short period of twenty years?

I resent especially the statement that I have leaned too heavily on Wertenbaker and Adams. The greater portions of my chapters on social life were written and used in mimeographed form quite a while before Adams and Wertenbaker came out. I have before me right now a mimeographed volume entitled *The Colonial Era: A Political and Social History*. It has the following chapters on social life and imperial administration:—Ch. XV, Social Life; Ch. XVI, Colonial Industries; Ch. XVII, Intellectual Life; Ch. XVIII, Colonial Agriculture; Ch. XXI, Population and Labor; Ch. XXII, Transportation and Commerce; Ch. XXIII, Imperial Machinery in the Government of the colonies; Ch. XXIV, Imperial Regulation of Colonial Commerce. The treatment of these subjects are, *in the main*, very much the same in this mimeographed copy as they are in the book. The mimeographed volume—*The Colonial Era*—was published and copyrighted by me in 1926. The works of Wertenbaker and Adams referred to came out in 1927. It is true that I carefully studied these volumes of the *American Life* series and made some important additions and revisions in the light of their contributions, but there is no great "dependence" upon them.

2. "Professor Chitwood's faith in some authorities would probably not be shared by other students; for example ex-Governor Alfred E. Smith on the founding of New York, or John Fiske on other subjects." I consider that this statement is also misleading. It is true that I do refer to Fiske in some footnotes, but in nearly every instance it is to a direct quotation or to a statement about which there is little or no controversy. As a matter of fact I made comparatively little use of Fiske in preparing this work.

The reference to ex-Governor Smith leaves a wrong and very unfair impression. One would think from your statement that I was relying upon him as an authoritative historian. Whereas in the entire book there is only one reference to him and that is concerned with a date about which there is a difference of opinion among scholars. Before mentioning ex-Governor Smith (p. 98, note 5), I give reference to Jameson's *Narratives of New Netherland*, pp. 75-76, 304; and O'Callaghan's *Documentary History of New York*, III, pp. 49-51. After expressing an opinion based on some modern authorities and my interpretation of these contemporary accounts, I say I am *confirmed* in this belief by an article in the *Encyclopedia Britannica* by Governor Smith and by the fact that New York had her tercentenary celebration in keeping with this view. Of course, I know that Mr. Alfred Smith is not a historian, but I also know that as governor he was in a position to press into his service reliable scholarship. Moreover, I can hardly believe that a great city like New York would set a date for its tercentenary celebration without first having been reasonably certain as to its correctness.

3. "The latter [the author] does not always know the worthlessness of some sources, for example, that Brickell's *Natural History of North Carolina* was largely plagiarized from the work of John Lawson." In this sentence I am virtually charged with ignorance of the fact that Brickell borrowed heavily and in a good part of his work copied from Lawson. As a matter of fact, I compared the two works, and on the basis of this comparison stated (p. 740) that "the work [Brickell's *Natural History*] is based on Lawson's *History*, but is fuller than the latter."

Yours very truly,

O. P. CHITWOOD

NEW YORK, February 25, 1932

DEAR PROFESSOR CHITWOOD:

Your reaction to my review of your volume suggests that I had nothing at all to say in its favor. You do me an in-

The Historical Outlook reviews Carl Becker's MODERN HISTORY

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suited to high school pupils. Its contents reflect the liberal attitude of its author. The teachers and pupils in American high schools are to be congratulated upon having the opportunity to use such a book." EDGAR BRUCE WESLEY, Head of Social Studies, University High School, and Assistant Professor, College of Education, University of Minnesota.

For the complete review see your issue of February, 1932, pp. 91-2.



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justice for it should be remembered that I did comment favorably on the increased space devoted to social history, and particularly the emphasis on the southern and middle colonies, a feature that distinguishes your volume from others.

What appears to you "meticulous fault finding" is to me necessary to make a fundamental point. It is hardly possible to write a text wholly from sources, but as I stated in my review, "The value of a text often depends on an author's acquaintance with the best authorities," by which I meant secondary works. I see no reason for referring to Alfred E. Smith or John Fiske, even sparingly, when better authorities are at hand. Students might better be directed at the start to the best available authorities. As for the relationship of Brickell's "Natural History" to John Lawson's work, I believe that your words "based on" do not convey the same impression that "largely plagiarized from" do. A later volume on the same subject is nearly always "based on" an earlier, if the latter happens to be good, but I understand copying to be something different.

I am glad to acknowledge your independent studies in a field also treated by Wertenbaker and Adams. My reference to them was mainly to point out that the volume suffered from a "paucity of . . . social material after 1763." My conclusions were arrived at only after a close reading, and furthermore not by a comparison with other texts. I believe it is not enough merely to introduce a few improvements, of which I did make acknowledgment. Good as "A History of Colonial America" is, it still falls short of my conception of an ideal text.

Very truly yours,

MICHAEL KRAUS

India in Recent Periodicals

BY GERTRUDE BRAMLETTE RICHARDS, PH.D.

Naturally the English reviews for January are full of comments hopeful or discouraged as the case may be, regarding the second Indian Conference held during the closing weeks of 1931. Lord Winterton, writing in the *Fortnightly Review* says that the good results are intangible rather than tangible. "Much has been done to display, if not to unravel the tangled skein of the fears, hopes, prejudices, aims and ambitions of the multitudinous races of India. The legend of an united Nationalist India, acting with a single purpose under sainted and superhuman leadership has been dispelled, it is to be hoped forever. Equally the legend of the other extreme point of view, that Indian politicians are merely a handful of verbose Bengali Babus, has been dissipated. Apart from the Congressional leaders, the majority of the representatives proved to be not only men of culture, intelligence and ability, but of practical experience and wisdom in discussion. There was genuine mutual admiration on both British and Indian sides. It was the conflict of interests which prevented agreement rather than the obstinacy of the delegates.

Professor J. Coatman, sometime director of the Department of Public Information in the Government of India, writing for the *Nineteenth Century*, is far less optimistic. He considers that from the beginning the minorities questions overshadowed all the work of the Conference and severely restricted the freedom of the members of the Federal structure. Subcommittees dealing with such unimportant parts of the machinery of government as the composition of the Federal Legislature and the relations between this and a section of the Indian Christians who were not prepared to discuss the basic problem of transitional limitations on the autonomy of the proposed Federal government in the four important branches of the government—defence, finance, foreign relations and commercial discriminations—until the safeguards of the minority had been got out of the way.

Sir Francis Younghusband adds a word on the Round Table Discussion in the *Contemporary Review*. The two Conferences (that of a year or more ago and the one just ended) have accomplished a temporary easing of the situation with India and a remarkable change of opinion in Great Britain. Before the Conference met Mr. Gandhi's non-co-operation, non-violence, civil disobedience and boycotting campaign was in full swing. The Indian National Congress was setting itself up as a "parallel government." It was holding the established Government up to opprobrium. It was defying its laws. It was instigating citizens to refuse to pay taxes. And when Indian delegates sailed from India to take part in the Conference they were treated as traitors, they were socially spurned and black flags were waved as they left the shores of their country. This attitude has not been substantially and permanently changed. But at any rate the situation in India was eased for the moment. Moderate Indian opinion was won over. It was not possible to come to an agreement with Mr. Gandhi, to suspend the non-violent, non-cooperative and civil disobedience and boycott campaign and to get the National Congress to accept the invitation which had been extended to them to send a representative to the Conference. But while there was this far from satisfactory though not very substantial change in the Indian attitude, there was a very marked change in British public opinion.

The Indian point of view on the Conference is set forth in a symposium published in the January *Asia* in which Dr. Shafa'at Ahmad Khan discusses the position of the Muslims in India and the necessity for tolerance; Rao Bahadur Sir A. P. Patio contributes a short account of the Justice Movement and Sardar Rao Bahadur M. V. Kipe, argues for a federated India.

In the last number of *Asia* W. N. Ewer presents an Englishman's view of Gandhi in London. He finds that the plain sincerity of the man, his quiet dignity and his authority all command respect but despite his very evident admiration of the leader, he does not hesitate to call him frankly unimpressive.

Books on History and Government Published in the United States from January 23, to February 20, 1932

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AMERICAN HISTORY

Beard, Charles A. *The Navy; defense or portent*. N.Y.: Harper, 198 pp.; \$2.00.
 Coates, Robert M. *The outlaw years; the history of the land pirates of the Natchez Trace*, N.Y.: Gold Label Books, 381 Fourth Ave.; 308 pp. (3 p. bibl.); \$1.00.
 Denison, John H. *Emotional currents in American history*. N.Y.: Scribner, 436 pp.; \$5.00.
 Hawes, Harry B. *Philippine uncertainty; an American problem*. N.Y.: Century Co.; 377 pp. (11 p. bibl.); \$3.00.
 Holand, H. R. *The Kensington stone, a study in pre-Columbian American history*. Ephraim, Wis.: Author; 316 pp.; \$3.00.
 Kelty, Mary G. *The American colonies*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 341 pp.; \$1.00.
 Konwiser, Harry M. *Colonial and Revolutionary posts [history of yearly postal departments]*. Richmond, Va.: Dietz Press; 96 pp.; \$2.00.
 Lippman, W. and Scroggs, W. O. *The United States in World Affairs*. N.Y.: Harper; 388 pp.; \$2.40.
 Mayo, Robert J. *Adventures in Minnesota history*. Milwaukee: E. M. Hale & Co., 3100 W. Cherry St.; 285 pp.; \$1.00.
 Sauer, Carl and Brand, Donald. *Prehistoric settlements of Sonora*. Berkeley: Univ. of Calif. Press; 80 pp.; \$2.00.
 Smith, Frances R. *The Mission of San Antonio de Padua (California)*. Stanford Univ., Calif.: Stanford Univ. Press; 117 pp. (2 p. bibl.); \$3.50.

FOR CLASS USE IN STUDYING ELECTIONS

SUMMARY OF PRESIDENTIAL ELECTIONS, 1789-1928

Year	Candidate	Party	Popular Vote	Electoral Vote	Year	Candidate	Party	Popular Vote	Electoral Vote
1789	Washington	Federalist	69	1884	1884	Blaine	Republican	4,851,981	182
1792	Washington	Federalist	132	1884	1884	Butler	Greenback	173,370	—
1796	Adams, John	Federalist	71	1884	1884	St. John	Prohibition	150,369	—
1796	Jefferson	Dem-Repub	68	1888	1888	Cleveland	Democrat	5,540,329	168
1800	Jefferson	Dem-Repub	73	1888	1888	Harrison	Republican	5,439,853	233
1800	Burr	Dem-Repub	73	1888	1888	Streeter	Union Lab.	146,935	—
1800	Adams, John	Federalist	65	1888	1888	Fisk	Prohibition	249,506	—
1800	Pinckney	Federalist	64	1888	1888	Cowdrey	United Lab.	2,818	—
1800	Jay	Federalist	1	1892	1892	Cleveland	Democrat	5,556,543	277
1804	Jefferson	Dem-Repub	162	1892	1892	Harrison	Republican	5,175,582	145
1804	Pinckney	Federalist	14	1892	1892	Bidwell	Prohibition	255,841	—
1808	Madison	Dem-Repub	122	1892	1892	Weaver	People's	1,040,886	22
1808	Clinton, Geo.	Dem-Repub	6	1892	1892	Wing	Soc. Labor	21,532	—
1808	Pinckney	Federalist	47	1896	1896	McKinley	Republican	7,111,607	271
1812	Madison	Dem-Repub	128	1896	1896	Bryan	Democrat	6,509,052	176
1812	Clinton, DeWitt	Federalist	89	1896	1896	Levering	Prohibition	131,312	—
1816	Monroe	Dem-Repub	183	1896	1896	Bentley	National	13,968	—
1816	King	Federalist	34	1896	1896	Matchett	Soc. Labor	36,373	—
1820	Monroe	Dem-Repub	231	1896	1896	Palmer	Nat. Dem.	134,645	—
1820	Adams, J. Q.	Dem-Repub	1	1900	1900	Roosevelt	Republican	7,219,525	292
1824	Jackson	—	152,901	99	1900	McKinley	Democrat	6,358,737	155
1824	Adams, J. Q.	—	114,023	84	1900	Bryan	Prohibition	209,157	—
1824	Crawford	—	46,979	41	1900	Woolley	People's	50,599	—
1824	Clay	—	47,217	37	1900	Barker	Soc. Dem.	94,864	—
1828	Jackson	Democrat	647,276	178	1900	Debs	Soc. Lab.	33,432	—
1828	Adams	Nat'l Repub	508,064	83	1900	Mailoney	Union Ref.	5,698	—
1832	Jackson	Democrat	687,502	219	1904	Roosevelt	Republican	7,628,785	336
1832	Clay	Nat'l Repub	530,189	49	1904	Parker	Democrat	5,084,442	140
1832	Wirt	Anti-Mason	7	1904	1904	Swallow	Prohibition	258,950	—
1832	Floyd	Nullification	11	1904	1904	Debs	Socialist	402,895	—
1836	Van Buren	Democrat	762,978	170	1904	Watson	People's	114,546	—
1836	Harrison	Whig	73	1904	1904	Corregan	Soc. Lab.	33,490	—
1836	White	Whig	736,250	26	1908	Taft	Republican	7,677,788	321
1836	Webster	Whig	14	1908	1908	Bryan	Democrat	6,407,982	162
1836	Mangum	Anti-Jackson	11	1908	1908	Chafin	Prohibition	252,511	—
1840	Van Buren	Democrat	1,129,102	60	1908	Debs	Socialist	420,890	—
1840	Harrison	Whig	1,275,016	234	1908	Watson	People's	29,146	—
1840	Birney	Liberty	7,059	—	1908	Hisgen	Independence	83,651	—
1844	Polk	Democrat	1,337,243	170	1908	Gilhaus	Soc. Lab.	14,021	—
1844	Clay	Whig	1,299,062	105	1912	Wilson	Democrat	6,293,019	435
1844	Birney	Liberty	65,608	—	1912	Roosevelt	Progressive	4,119,507	88
1848	Taylor	Whig	1,360,099	163	1912	Taft	Republican	3,484,956	8
1848	Cass	Democrat	1,220,544	127	1912	Debs	Socialist	901,873	—
1848	Van Buren	Free Soil	291,263	—	1912	Chafin	Prohibition	207,828	—
1852	Pierce	Democrat	1,601,474	254	1912	Reimer	Soc. Lab.	29,259	—
1852	Scott	Whig	1,386,580	42	1916	Wilson	Democrat	9,129,606	277
1852	Hale	Free Soil	156,149	—	1916	Hughes	Republican	8,538,221	254
1856	Buchanan	Democrat	1,838,169	174	1916	Hanly	Prohibition	220,506	—
1856	Fremont	Republican	1,341,264	114	1916	Benson	Socialist	586,113	—
1856	Fillmore	American	874,534	8	1916	Reimer	Soc. Labor	13,403	—
1860	Douglas	Democrat	1,376,957	12	1916	Harding	Progressive	41,894	—
1860	Breckinridge	Democrat	849,781	72	1920	Cox	Republican	16,152,200	404
1860	Lincoln	Republican	1,866,452	180	1920	Debs	Democrat	9,147,353	127
1860	Bell	Union	588,879	39	1920	Christensen	Socialist	919,799	—
1864	McClellan	Democrat	1,802,237	21	1920	Watkins	Farmer-Lab.	265,411	—
1864	Lincoln	Republican	2,213,665	212	1920	LaFollette	Prohibition	189,408	—
1868	Seymour	Democrat	2,703,249	80	1920	Cox	Soc.-Labor	31,175	—
1868	Grant	Republican	3,012,883	214	1920	Macaulay	Single Tax	5,837	—
1872	Greeley	Democrat	2,834,125	*63	1924	Coolidge	Republican	15,725,916	382
1872	O'Conor	Ind. Dem.	29,408	—	1924	Davis	Democrat	8,386,503	136
1872	Grant	Republican	3,597,132	286	1924	LaFollette	Progressive	4,822,856	13
1872	Black	Temperance	5,648	—	1924	Johns	Soc. Labor	36,428	—
1876	Tilden	Democrat	4,285,992	184	1924	Foster	Workers	36,386	—
1876	Hayes	Republican	4,033,768	185	1924	Faris	Prohibition	57,520	—
1876	Cooper	Greenback	81,737	—	1924	Nations	American	23,967	—
1876	Smith	Prohibition	9,522	—	1924	Wallace	Com. Land.	1,532	—
1880	Hancock	Democrat	4,444,952	155	1928	Hoover	Republican	21,392,190	444
1880	Garfield	Republican	4,454,416	214	1928	Smith	Democrat	15,016,443	87
1880	Weaver	Greenback	308,578	—	1928	Thompson	Socialist	267,420	—
1880	Dow	Prohibition	10,305	—	1928	Foster	Workers	48,770	—
1884	Cleveland	Democrat	4,874,986	219	1928	Reynolds	Soc. Labor	21,603	—

* Owing to the death of Mr. Greeley, the 63 electoral votes were variously cast. Thomas A. Hendricks received 42, B. Gratz Brown 18, Charles J. Jenkins 2, David Davis 1.

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Lenin, V. I. The Revolution of 1905. N.Y.: Internat. Publishers; 55 pp.

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of the Social Sciences, Vol. 6. Exp-Gos. N.Y.: Macmillan; 713 pp.; \$7.50.

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